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ABSTRACT

This report of the Senate Subcommittee on the Constitution examines the phenomenon of homeless youth, including the population, their families, survival tactics, the availability of services, and future outlooks. A section reviewing the legal constraints imposed on young people which affect their ability to live on their own is followed by a review of the agencies serving homeless youth, with data and impressions collected from interviews. A description of runaway programs throughout the United States is included. Data from on-site program visits and interviews with agency personnel, police officers, and juvenile justice, corrections, public assistance, mental health, and child care personnel are reported. Data are also included from case records of runaways and interviews conducted with homeless youth about the quality of their lives, survival techniques, difficulties encountered in obtaining food, shelter and employment and their hopes for the future. The appendices contain the Juvenile Justice and Runaway Youth acts and amendments, additional reports on homeless youth and child abuse, and interview forms for agency personnel and youths. (NRB)

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96th Congress
2d Session

COMMITTEE PRINT

HOMELESS YOUTH: THE SAGA OF "PUSHOUTS" AND "THROWAWAYS" IN AMERICA

REPORT

OF THE

SUBCOMMITTEE ON THE CONSTITUTION

OF THE

COMMITTEE ON THE JUDICIARY
UNITED STATES SENATE
NINETY-SIXTH CONGRESS

SECOND SESSION

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 was grounded on our findings that the Nation's juvenile justice systems were collectively often more harmful, in terms of expensive overhead and the likelihood that involvement actually led a child to more frequent and increasingly serious violations, than helpful.

One of the key features of the Juvenile Justice Act has been the Runaway and Homeless Youth Act, Title III of the Law, designed to provide assistance to States, localities, and nonprofit private agencies to operate temporary shelter care facilities in areas where runaway and homeless youth are more prevalent. America's homeless youth include those neglected and physically, emotionally and sexually abused youth who have become our "pushouts" and "throwaway" children. The Runaway and Homeless Youth Act, which has a strong bipartisan majority is one of the best examples that can be cited where legislation passed by Congress has had a direct, positive result in the local community. Over 150 programs funded by the Act each year have made it possible for thousands of troubled youths to get help and for homeless young people to find a decent place to live on a temporary basis. In other cases, thousands of families have been reunited and set to work on solving their problems. Attempts to reunite these young people with their families is the ultimate goal of the Act.

One of the most troubling problems is that such children, labeled as status offenders by most states, are treated like criminals. This is reprehensible. It is beyond reason to believe that incarcerating an abused or homeless young person in a jail or other locked facility along with juveniles and adults who have committed violent and serious crimes could possibly be a sound action. In these cases the cure is worse than the disease and costs the taxpayers millions of dollars to finance, in addition to the emotional costs to the children and their families.

In particular, the homeless youth population continues to go unnoticed because it is a silent problem, far less dramatic than most of the other ills that affect our young people. They are confused boys and girls who are overburdened with personal, family, or school problems and decide to leave home, or more likely are cast from their homes by families with intense personal problems themselves. They deserve our help and understanding.

Federal laws cannot provide a solution to the homeless youth problem, but rather can encourage local initiatives and can provide some of the resources necessary for local leaders to do the job. The best prevention still resides in the home. Parents must watch for that door that is constantly closed—the door to both the young person's room and mind. Youngsters need the assurance that they are an integral part of the family unit. The ability to talk things over can never be given short shrift.

This Report examines the phenomenon of homeless youth, defines the population, describes the families these youth come from, discusses

their survival tactics when they live on their own, examines the services and resources available or lacking to them and assesses their future.

We must continue to strive for improved juvenile shelter facilities, improved court processes, and provide basic rights and responsibilities for our young people. As in the past, young people of the future will continue to disagree with their parents, rebel against society, and run or be cast out, searching for something better in life. What happens to them tomorrow is a problem that we must work toward solving today. It is our duty to help assure that those youth who have come apart from the community will instead become a part of it. It is our responsibility to offer them a future worthy of anticipation and more fully acknowledge that our young people are our Nation's most valuable resource.

October 2, 1980.

BIRCH BAYH,
Chairman,
Subcommittee on the Constitution.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to give special thanks to Migs Woodside, consultant to the Subcommittee on the Constitution, for her exceptional work, high standard of professionalism and invaluable assistance in preparing this Report. Her long hours of dedicated service have enabled the subcommittee to carry out its responsibilities in the area of juvenile justice for which she is highly commended.

Migs Woodside has been actively committed to the fields of drug abuse, alcoholism and juvenile justice since 1968 when she first worked at Daytop Village, Inc. and later at Phoenix House Foundation, Inc., both therapeutic communities for the rehabilitation of addicts. Although she performed executive and administrative functions, she was involved on a daily basis with young people who were trying to make the necessary changes to abstain from substance abuse. Subsequently, she became Assistant Commissioner of the Addiction Services Agency, City of New York, the umbrella for over 150 drug rehabilitation programs. In addition to setting policy in maintaining this health service network and in developing priorities for allocating $80 million for treatment programs and Agency operations, she was the sole representative to the New York City Board of Estimate and to the Federal Government.

In 1977, Migs Woodside became a consultant to the U.S. Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency and produced reports including one on Phencyclidine (PCP), which provided the basis for two Hearings held jointly by the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency and the Subcommittee on Alcoholism and Narcotics. The Phencyclidine Hearings resulted in national legislation to control an essential chemical in the manufacture of Angel Dust and the legislation was approved by Congress and signed by the President into Public Law 95–633. In 1978, in her report, "Near East Heroin; the Next U.S. Supply," she accurately predicted the influx of heroin from Iran, Afghanistan, and Paskistan.

Currently, Migs Woodside is on the Board of Directors of Citizen's Committee for Children of New York, Inc. and is heading a Task Force of professional and lay people to examine the way the New York State Division for Youth handles youngsters placed in its secure facilities. She sits on the Mayor's Advisory Council to the New York City Bureau of Alcoholism and is Chairperson of the Ad Hoc Committee for Alcoholism Services which is concerned with the provision of alcoholism services in the municipal hospitals, as well as with State and City funding and buagetary matters. She is also on the Board of Directors and Program Activities Chairperson of the National Genetics Foundation and is a members of the Advisory Board of an innovative preventive services program, The Center for Family Life, in Sunset Park, Brooklyn, N.Y. She resides in New York and Connecticut.

BIRCH BAYH,
Chairman, Subcommittee on the Constitution.

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INTRODUCTION

The United States Senate has had a long and deep commitment to many crucial issues which affect our citizens, including juvenile justice, the control of dangerous drugs and the regulation of firearms and explosives. Under the aegis of the Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, of the Committee on the Judiciary, a vast wealth of legislation, reports, investigations, hearings, public information and interest has been generated. For more than two decades, the Subcommittee conducted extensive investigations and hearings of proposed firearms legislation and major investigations and hearings on efforts to control the use and abuse of legal and illegal drugs. By exercising its oversight responsibilities for both the Controlled Substances Act and the Drug Enforcement Administration of the Justice Department, legislation has been enacted and administrative action effected concerning the regulation of illicit methadone traffic, limitations on the manufacture and consequent reduced availability of phencyclidine (Angel Dust) and the rescheduling and reduction of numerous controlled substances including barbiturates, methaqualone (Quaaludes) and amphetamines. In addition, the Subcommittee has been instrumental in the revision of the sentencing structure and penalties for convicted drug traffickers as well as legislating provisions on the forfeiture and seizure of assets related to drug smuggling.

It is quite possible that despite its distinguished record of impressive achievements, the Subcommittee is best known nationally for its innovative leadership role in the field of juvenile justice. Over the years, areas of investigation and legislation have included television violence, black-market babies, violent juvenile offenders, child pornography and prostitution, school violence and vandalism, youth gangs and violent crime. However, under the leadership of Senator Birch Bayh, who for seven years served as Chairman of the Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, the capstone of achievements was the passage of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974. The Act, which is a comprehensive, coordinated Federal response to improve the juvenile justice system, prevent and reduce juvenile delinquency and better address the problem posed by runaway, abandoned and neglected and abused youths throughout the country, was extended in 1977 and will be reauthorized in 1980.

In March, 1978, as a result of changed leadership of the Committee on the Judiciary, six subcommittees were slated to be subsumed by the full committee, other subcommittees or be totally disbanded. However, the sole subcommittee responsible for youth issues was dissolved . . . the Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. The jurisdiction for juvenile justice and delinquency prevention was assigned to the Subcommittee on the Constitution, chaired by Senator Bayh.

As early as 1970, the Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency realized that the numbers of youngsters fleeing from home

was on the increase and perceived the dangers young people were encountering as they hit the road, crisscrossing the country without funds, shelter or food. On November 9, 1971, Senator Bayh introduced S. 2829, the Runaway Youth Act and on January 13 and 14, 1972, the Subcommittee held the first Congressional hearings on runaways in well over a decade. During the hearings, expert witnesses estimated that over 1 million youngsters ran away each year; their average age was fifteen and the majority were female. In contradiction to the widely held myth that running away was a white, middle-class phenomenon, it was stated that home situations of runaways were not limited by any socio-economic or racial boundaries. Witnesses also testified on the need to establish programs to divert runaways from arrest, detention and involvement in law enforcement systems which could lead to exposure to other serious offenders, possible incarceration and injurious labeling as juvenile delinquents. Although the Senate readily ascertained the need for legislation and unanimously approved the Runaway Youth Act on July 31, 1972, the full House did not consider the legislation during that session.

Subsequently, on January 31, 1973, steadfast in his commitment to provide services for runaways in need, Senator Bayh reintroduced the Runaway Youth Act, S. 645 and on June 8, 1973, the entire Senate once again unanimously approved the bill. By July 16, 1973, the House concurred that the problems and vulnerabilities of runaways were in fact a national priority and incorporated the Bayh bill into its own legislation. However, it was not until over a year later, September 7, 1974, that the Runaway Youth Act, as Title III of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act, was signed by the President into law (Appendix A).

This legislation, which represented a Congressional endeavor to bring the runaway problem under control, provided funds for temporary care and immediate shelter for up to 20 youngsters; counseling to re-unite youths with their families; and provisions to return runaways to their homes or place them in appropriate alternative living situations outside the juvenile justice or law enforcement systems. An important feature was the legislated mandate to provide aftercare counseling services to youths and their families in order to resolve problems, strengthen relationships and encourage stable living conditions for youths after return. Despite the obvious legislative and financial commitment on the part of Congress to aid young people by enacting the Runaway Youth Act and setting an authorization level of funds at $10 million each for 1975, 1976 and 1977, implementation of the law met with severe obstacles from the Administration. The Congressional bill which permitted appropriations of $[illegible] million in 1975, $7 million in 1976 and $1.2 million for the July–October 1976 transition period was vetoed by the President on December 19, 1975. Subsequently, on January 27, 1976, Congress overrode the veto and appropriated $8.2 million for July 1, 1976 through September 30, 1977 and a sum of $9 million for fiscal year 1977. However, the Administration totally deleted funding for the Runaway Youth Act from the budget and it remained for the new President to restore the fiscal year 1977 level to fiscal year 1978.

On March 17, 1977, Senator Bayh introduced S. 1021, the Juvenile Justice Amendments, which was designed to strengthen the Juvenile

Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 and Title III, the Runaway Youth Act (Appendix B). A vital aspect of the runaway legislation was the inclusion of a heretofore unidentified, unserviced, ignored population: homeless youth. In their first years of operation, runaway programs soon found they were serving youth who did not fit the traditional runaway typology and who in fact could not return home. These youngsters were the throwaways—the pushouts—whose families had let them know they were no longer welcome—and were told to leave and make it on their own. More and more young people were coming to the runaway agencies for help after trying to make a life for themselves on the street, sleeping on rooftops, under bridges, in abandoned buildings, garages; supporting themselves by petty theft, prostitution, gang membership and panhandling. As the numbers increased, youth programs and citizens advocacy groups kept the Congressional leadership informed about this desperate population and Congress, in response, broadened the Runaway Youth Act to permit funding for services to homeless youth. Sec. 311 as amended read:

> The Secretary is authorized to make grants and to provide technical assistance to facilities and non-profit private agencies in accordance with the provisions of this part. Grants under this part shall be made for the purpose of developing local facilities to deal primarily with the immediate needs of runaway youth *or otherwise homeless youth* in a manner which is outside the law enforcement structure and juvenile justice system. The size of such grant shall be determined by the number of *such youth* in the community and the existing availability of services. Among applicants priority shall be given to private organizations or institutions which have had past experience in dealing with *such youth*. [1] [Emphasis added.]

By September 1977, the Senate and the House were able to work out a compromise bill which included provision for homeless youth and on October 3, 1977, the President signed the legislation into law.

The purpose of this report is to examine the phenomenon of homeless youth, give some broad definition to the population, describe the families they come from, discuss the survival techniques they use to live on their own, examine services and resources available or lacking to them and make an assessment of their future life options. Since this is a relatively uninvestigated population, it is first appropriate to delineate between homeless and runaway youngsters. Currently, it is not meaningful to illustrate these differences in primarily statistical terms, because little data exists. Although several studies have been performed on the demographics and typologies of homeless young people, information is extremely limited. At this point, because of the need to make a nationwide investigation of these youngsters, this report must necessarily be based on impressions, attitudinal and situational differences rather than on statistical comparisons.

There are many interpretations both in popular and professional literature to explain the causes of running away from home. The typical runaway episode usually stems from conflict or frustration in the parent-child relationship including disagreements over appearance, friends, house rules, curfews or level of expectation about school performance, job or behaviour. Running away can reflect a child's feeling of assumed parental rejection, fury with parents' rules and anger at their unwillingness to relax seemingly capricious restrictions in the face of youth's desire to move naturally toward adulthood. Running

NOTE: See references at end of report.

away may also mark an attempt by youth to achieve independence and autonomy and can be regarded as an alternate way of dealing with the problems of growing up. A traditional runaway episode usually is impulsive, spontaneous, acting-out behaviour which may dramatically bring to a head the youth's need to get a more flexible, responsive dialogue going with their family. Even as youngsters know their behaviour will not permanently sever family ties, they also fully expect the family to contact local authorities to try and bring them back and effect a reconciliation. Generally, families of runaways do want the youngsters to come home and may be quite willing to renegotiate positions which triggered the runaway incident. Similarly, runaway youngsters generally do want to return home.

The circumstances causing homeless youth differ from those related to runaway episodes. A youngster usually becomes homeless as a response to an overall family situation, not as an explosive reaction to a limited specific family problem. For homeless youth, deep family pathology is present; the entire family is in real trouble and the young person may well have been living with intolerable conditions over a long period of time. Consider the youth who is physically beaten by parents; the young male or female who is sexually abused by a parent or parents' "friend"; the young person who can no longer handle parental alcohol abuse or verbal attacks. After a period of neglect and abuse, these youngsters are often rejected by the parents and told flatly to leave home. Other young people are pushed, forced or thrown out by their families. The basic thrust may come from an economic squeeze and parents do not want to continue the financial burden of the adolescent's support. With the greatly increased number of divorced parents and ensuing recombination of families, the newest male or female friend or step-parent may resent the young person and force him or her from the home. Likewise, when separated or divorced parents take a new partner into the household, they may become competitive or jealous of a teenaged daughter's or son's sexuality and throw the young woman or man out of the house. Additionally, the population of homeless youth is increased by those youngsters who are doubly homeless; given up at an earlier age by parents unable or unwilling to care for them, turned over to the State for shelter, food and care. For these youth living out of home, arrangements made for placement in alternative situations are often unsuitable and inappropriate. As a result, these youth become homeless again and are out on their own, roaming the streets.

Although a runaway can eventually end up as a throwaway as families experience further disintegration, the family dynamics of running away and homelessness are quite different. "Runaways have the option of something to run *from*. Homeless youth don't have a choice—there isn't anything to run from." [2] Homeless youth do not have the option of searching for independence; they have it thrust upon them.

> **The runaway knows his roots—he knows what he's leaving. The person who is homeless doesn't have much self-identity or roots. The youngster isn't leaving anything—he never had anything to leave. [3]**

Homeless youths know their ties are broken; there is no family eager to have them back. Their roots have been severed; they are unwanted. When law enforcement officials find a runaway, police often call the parent, discover the youth is welcome, can be returned home and the

family reunited. In contrast, when police call families of a homeless youth, found sleeping in a hallway or airport lounge, a common parental response is "What do you want me to do? You got her—keep her!" [4]

It can be said that the runaway phenomena stems mainly from youngsters and may be but one of many alternative techniques used in the process of growth toward adulthood and autonomy. However, the phenomenon of homeless youth is not youth oriented, it is a familial and societal problem. Many families across the United States are too disorganized and worn out to act responsibly in nurturing and supervising their youngsters; their family life is dysfunctional and there is a prevalence of abuse and neglect. It is not surprising to find that all the usual socioeconomic ills are in evidence and contribute to family problems; unemployment, lack of jobs, employment insecurity, inflation, dissolution of the extended and nuclear family and the rising divorce and re-marriage rate as well as the deterioration of formerly meaningful and credible social institutions, such as the educational system, government, religion and local community supports.

In order to deal effectively with the problems of homeless youth, the issues must be tackled long before the homeless condition occurs. Help and assistance is needed for families in trouble; comprehensive preventive and support services must be available and emphasis should be placed on keeping families together and making them strong. It is much too late to begin considering the question of homeless youth after the home door is shut and bolted and the youngsters find themselves out in the street.

September 12, 1980.

MIGS WOODSIDE,
Consultant,
Subcommittee on the Constitution.

BACKGROUND

The discovery and identification of homeless youth is a relatively recent phenomenon, which occurred only within the last five years. Runaway programs were the first to realize that many young people coming to them for services had no home to return to. The program's awareness resulted from the fact they could not adequately nor comfortably complete the data forms sent them by the Federal Youth Development Bureau, ACYF, which has the responsibility to administer the Runaway Youth Act. Whereas the Intake and Service Summary Forms appropriately inquired about runaway incidents, the form did not request information about families, parents, siblings or the cause of the so-called runaway episode. Since homeless youth are the product of family dysfunction, their symptoms and presence could not be fitted neatly into the government computers.

As recently as 1978, there was still meager mention made of the homeless youth population; they occasionally turned up as shadows in government reports on runaway programs, where they might be obliquely labeled "non-returners." Similarly, during public runaway hearings, testimony about homeless youth was generally brief, almost given as an aside by most witnesses and usually ignored by legislators. Still, there were a few impassioned, outspoken experts who pleaded:

> **Please do something about the homeless children in our city. And do it pretty fast. . . . . I think that our political and judicial systems, and our law enforcement agencies have demonstrated quite amply their unwillingness and inability to deal effectively with the problem. [5]**

As the result of research funds being made available by Congress to the Youth Development Bureau, some data now exists on homeless youth; however, the scope is still very limited.

In order to review the state of current professional literature concerning homeless young people, a computer search was performed of the Psychological Abstracts and the Sociological Abstracts, (June 1978–June 1980). Using the access code words "adolescent runaway, abuse, neglect, and homeless youth," 163 citations were retrieved. While the literature pertains to many underlying causes of youth becoming homeless, there were no articles written specifically about this population. A computer search was also made of the New York Times Information Bank, compiled from a data base of approximately 60 periodicals (January 1978–June 1980). Numerous key words and modifiers were used in hopes of extracting some information, including "missing and runaway teen-agers, child abuse, maltreatment, neglect, families and family life and children and youth." However, although over 230 articles were retrieved, only one item was written about homeless youth. Entitled "America's 'Throwaway' Children," the article notes:

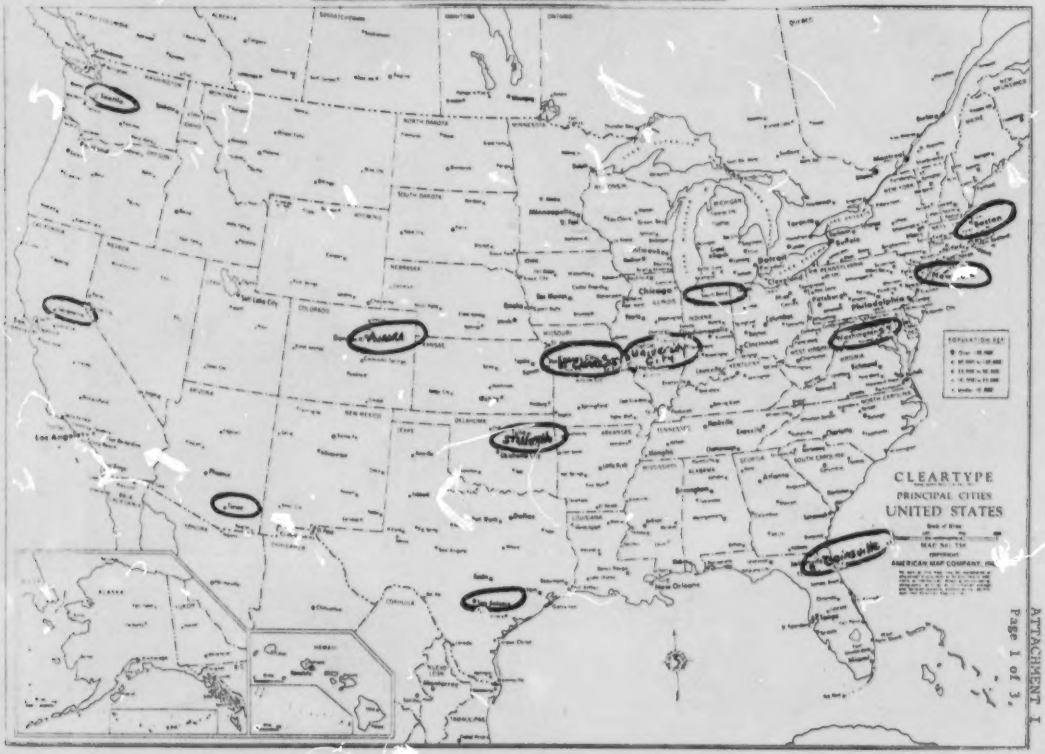
> **A growing share of the 2 million young runaways in America each year turn out instead to be "pushouts." The Office of Youth Development of the Department of Health and Human Services. . . . estimates that as many as 28 percent of the**

current runaway population may have been forced out of their home by their parents. Some recent examples:

> Jim, a 16 year old, middle-class youth in Ohio, got into a prolonged argument with his father, over Jim's refusal to cut the grass. The father ordered him to leave the house and later refused to take him back.
>
> Brenda, also 16 and a Midwesterner, had been involved sexually with her stepfather for several years. When her mother discovered this, she told Brenda to leave and never return.
>
> After Sammy's mother committed suicide, his stepfather remarried. Sammy, then 15, says that he was "kicked out of the house" and his brother, age 17, told to join the Army.
>
> An American Indian couple, both alcoholics, decided to split up, and each insisted that the other take responsibility for their 14 year old daughter, Barb. Neither agreed to keep her, so Barb wound up living in cars and vacant buildings in Minneapolis [6] (Appendix C).

Having encountered a dearth of written material about homeless youth, it was clear the most feasible way to collect information was to contact programs and social systems serving these youngsters and also talk directly to youth about their condition. With this intent, runaway programs throughout the United States were selected to be interviewed by telephone and to complete an Interview form devised for this purpose (Appendix D). Although not stratified, the sample was designed with the purpose of collecting data from at least one program located in each of the ten geographical regions defined by the Youth Development Bureau. In addition to geographical dispersion, programs were included according to the size of the population where they were located. Consequently, the variation in population ranges from 12,601 (Stillwell, Adair County) to almost 8 million inhabitants (New York City). In three instances, programs were included because of specific emphasis: Youth in Need (St. Charles, Missouri) and Diogenes Youth Services (Sacramento, California)currently participating in a project for maltreated adolescents who use runaway programs; and the Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter (Stillwell, Oklahoma) due to the presence of many Native American youth (Attachment I) (Appendix E).

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION OF RUNAWAY PROGRAMS INTERVIEWED



ATTACHMENT I
Page 1 of 3.

In addition to nationwide interviews, New York City and two suburban areas were selected for an indepth review. Whereas New York is not typical of the United States, it does share many of the same problems and characteristics of other cities in the country: a mixed population, economic spread and underemployment, increased numbers of single parent families, a rising cost of living and many changing neighborhoods. Additionally, it is important to examine large cities because they can serve as magnets for homeless youth.

ATTACHMENT I

POPULATION AND GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION OF RUNAWAY PROGRAMS INTERVIEWED

State and program	Location	Population (1970 Census [1])
Arizona: Towner House	Tucson	267, 418
California: Diogenes Youth Services	Sacramento	257, 105
Colorado: COMITIS Runaway/Time-Out Program	Aurora	76, 477
District of Columbia: SAJA	Washington	756, 668
Florida: Interface	Gainesville	64, 510
Indiana: The Shelter	South Bend	127, 328
Massachusetts: Place Runaway House	Boston	641, 071
Missouri:		
Youth Emergency Service	University City	47, 527
Youth In Need	St. Charles	31, 834
New York:		
Convenant House	New York City, Times Square	7, 895, 563
Educational Alliance Project CONTACT	Lower East Side	
Emergency Shelter	Bowery	
GLIE Community Youth Program	South Bronx	
Hot Line Cares, Inc	East Harlem	
Independence House	Lower West Side	
The Door—A Center of Alternatives	Lower 6th Ave	
Runaway Youth Coordinating Council	Hempstead, Long Island	39, 411
Sanctuary	Huntington, Long Island	12, 601
Oklahoma: Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter	Stilwell (in Adair County)	[2] 15, 141
Texas: The Bridge Emergency Shelter	San Antonio	708, 582
Washington: The Shelter Runaway Center	Seattle	530, 831

[1] Source: County and City Data Book, 1977. U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1978.
[2] Total Adair County.

As an initial step, on-site visits were made to runaway programs, an interview form designed and discussions held with agency personnel (Appendix F). After completing the program visits, further interviews took place with representatives of public and private authorities, including police, juvenile justice, corrections, public assistance, mental health facilities and child care agencies, so that the broadest possible overview could be obtained (Appendix G).

The final step was to hear from homeless youth about the quality of their lives, techniques used for survival, difficulties encountered in getting food, shelter and employment, their hopes for the future and the things they think important for legislators to know. A form to elicit this information was used in interviews conducted at the S.O.S. service of The Door—A Center of Alternatives (Appendix H). Most of the young people coming to this crisis unit were predominantly minority and inner city youngsters and their responses quite naturally showed substantial urban influences. To correct this bias, the records of the Runaway Youth Coordinating Council, located in Nassau County, Long Island, were reviewed. Through the examination of case records of youngsters in the suburbs, the picture of what is happening to homeless youth became clear.

Legal Impediments to Independent Living

Before looking at the agencies serving homeless youth and the data and impressions collected from interviews, it is necessary to briefly review the many legal constraints imposed on young people which drastically affect youths' ability to live on their own.

Until recently, youngsters were considered the property of their parents or wards of the State and a complex set of laws was enacted on the supposition that youth needed protection from injurious behavior resulting from their own supposed immaturity. Within the last fifteen years, the United States Supreme Court ruled that the Bill of Rights applied to young people, as well as to adults. This decision permitted youngsters to claim rights previously denied them. However, founded as it was in protectionism, the decision still served to limit the rights of youth. A report on the Constitutional Rights of Children notes:

> **The State's interest in the welfare of its young citizens justifies a variety of protective measures. Because he may not forsee the consequences of his decision, a minor may not make an enforceable bargain. He may not lawfully work or travel where he pleases or even attend exhibitions of constitutionally protected adult motion pictures. Persons below a certain age may not marry without parental consent. Indeed, such consent is essential even when the young woman is already pregnant.**
>
> **The State's interest in protecting a young person from harm justifies the imposition of restraints on his or her freedom even though comparable restraints on adults would be constitutionally impermissible. [7]**

In addition to the right of States to legislate constraints on youth, each State has the inherent power to make laws for its own jurisdiction. The result is that young people are faced with a web of arbitrary and inconsistent rights and prohibitions which change from State to State throughout the Nation (Appendix I). This body of law extends into the most basic and fundamental areas of everyday life, including the ability to leave school, obtain employment, sign contracts, vote, serve on a jury, buy and consume alcoholic beverages, or receive consideration by a juvenile court. It is evident that States play a considerable role in imposing restrictions on major life decisions of young people and in doing so, protect them, or in fact, deprive them of their autonomy and independence.

As well as limitations on youth by States, there are further restrictions resulting from the rights of parents. In the past, under common law, parents had specific obligations to provide for the well-being and restraint of youngsters' activities. Although the situation has been somewhat modified in recent years, parental controls and responsibilities are still exercised in many vital areas. Without prior written consent by parents, it is impossible in certain States for persons under the ages of eighteen (and in some cases twenty-one) to marry, generally obtain medical care, including emergency surgery, get a learner's permit or license and in some cases, select courses for study in

school. To illustrate the capricious nature of State and parental rights, consider the plight of youth in New York. At sixteen, a youth can legally leave school and get a job. If he is suspected of a crime, he is ineligible for treatment by the juvenile court and his case would be heard under the jurisdiction of the adult correctional system. Yet, this same youth would be unable to get an operator's license for his car until age 17 and would have to wait an additional year to get medical care without parental permission, unless he was married or the father of a child. Both States' and parents' rights conspire to give youths a confused message about their status. Youth are in limbo—neither children nor adults.

One legal mechanism does exist which allows the termination of rights and obligations between parents and youth. The act of emancipation, usually only one aspect of a more extensive case under court jurisdiction, releases parents from their legal duties to support, educate and maintain their youngsters. Consequently, when a youth becomes an emancipated minor, he is entitled to be treated as an adult in most cases and to assume adult privileges. However, it is extremely difficult for youth who have been pushed out of their home situations to become emancipated. The emancipation process includes the ability to demonstrate to the court both the capability of living away from home and the self-sufficiency to be financially independent. Nevertheless, until emancipated, youth are legally prevented from signing leases on apartments or receiving public assistance, if unemployed. Youth whose families do not want them and who cannot go home are caught in a Kafkaesque tangle. They are stymied in their efforts to demonstrate the necessary ability to live independently at the same time it is crucial for them to do so, since their parents have walked away from assuming responsibility.

In reality, emancipation generally occurs outside the court setting. Most youngsters are self-emancipated by the act of becoming homeless. At the time when "the parents actually force their child out of the home and require that the child support himself, complete or partial emancipation may be established without the benefit (or bother) of obtaining judicial approval." [8] However, emancipation without due process also leaves youth disenfranchised.

There is a desperate need for emancipation to be made easier for youth or for parents to be hauled into court and held responsible for their youngster. When a kid is kicked out, the judge will provide emancipation but only if the youth can show he can live on his own. If he is kicked out, emancipation should be automatically granted. Either the youth should be given more benefits and assigned responsibility for himself or the adult should be held responsible.

If our laws say that parents are supposed to be held responsible for their children until they reach the age of majority, we ought to enforce that law instead of passing off the situation as a "domestic problem." Children do not have the kind of legal agreements with their parents that people have when they get married, although there is an assumption of a legal obligation to one's child. Instead, parents are divorcing their children and the children have no protection. The judge should be able to insist that you do not have to take your child home but you must provide for the youngster. Parents shouldn't be let off the hook by changing the lock. [9]

An additional impetus to emphasize enforcement of the responsibilities of parent/adulthood, instead of lowering the minimum age level for emancipation of youth, comes from current national attitudes towards the handling of young people, particularly in the

area of juvenile justice. Notably, in 1978, the State of New York enacted legislation which permits some children, aged 13, to be tried and convicted in the adult criminal system.

> We have been bucking the trend of the protective theory of law because it can actually be repressive for kids since they can't get rights. On the other hand, when they are freed from protection, they can be held more responsible for their actions, which is a double-edged sword. If we want to emancipate kids and let them be adults, there are some who will say let's make them adults in crime, too. [10]

In many States, youngsters under eighteen who appear to be absent from home without parental permission, are considered runaways. In fact, they may well be homeless youth. They can be picked up by the police, held overnight in detention centers, brought into juvenile court, shipped across State lines to their home State or returned to the same family which threw them out in the first place. These young people have committed no crime or offense yet they find themselves involved with the judicial process and juvenile justice system. The real injustice is that nobody wants them.

In a related effort to keep youngsters out of court, the Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1977 included the provisions of law-related education programs to teach youth their rights and responsibilities. There are numerous instances where youth are uninformed and need legal assistance concerning parental consent restrictions, employment rights, eligibility for public assistance and school-related problems.

> The lack of information about law and particularly about laws affecting them directly, the unavailability of legal advice, counseling, or other legal assistance to resolve real life problems, the inability to use legitimate means of resolving problems, the consequent frustration with and alienation from the law and the legal system, and the sense of unfairness and injustice all contribute to negative attitudes toward and disrespect for the law by youth, result in unresolved crises and problems for youth, and ultimately contribute to antisocial, acting-out, delinquent and criminal behaviour. [11]

In summary, young people who are forced out of their homes by their families may find it almost impossible to establish any kind of secure, legal lifestyle. They are hampered by States' rights, constrained by the necessity for parental consents and by reason of their chronological age, candidates for the juvenile justice system.

Program Interviews and Analysis of Data

During June and July, 1980, runaway programs were contacted and asked to participate in interviews concerning homeless youth. Program directors appeared unanimous in their enthusiasm to talk about homeless youngsters and voiced great pleasure that this group was finally getting attention. Even while the interviews were taking place, it became apparent that program staff was extremely hard-working, constantly occupied, and there were many interruptions which reflected the constant busy hum of programs dealing daily with young people. However, everyone was most cheerful in setting aside the press of program business in order to share their concerns and problems about homeless youngsters.

The first task was to define what was meant by "homeless youth" and it was established the term would include youths who had been "thrown out", "pushed out", "out of the house by mutual consent with parents" and those who for one reason or another could not go home

again. None of the programs evinced any puzzlement about whether or not the population existed and, all indicated they are in fact serving homeless youth. As indicated on the Data Chart, the programs agreed that at least 10%–20% of their population was composed of homeless young people. Significantly, six programs stated that as many as 20%–30% of their clients were homeless and one program, the Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter, indicating that 85% of the youngsters could not go home again. "We have few that were not thrown away. Most of our youngsters are homeless for good reasons." [12]

PERCENTAGE OF HOMELESS YOUTH CHARACTERISTICS

[By number of respondants]

	Completed forms	0–10	10–20	20–30	30–40	40–50	50–60	60–70	70–80	80–90	90–100
Homeless youth contacting program in 1979	12		2	6	2	1				1	
Males	12			1	1	5	2	1	2		
Females	12			2	3	3	3	1			
Ethnicity:											
Caucasian	12	1			1	2	1	1	4	2	
Black	11	6	2		1	1				1	
Hispanic	11	9	1				1				
Other	11	10				1					
Place of origin:											
Local	12			1					4	6	1
Within State	11	8	2			1					
Out of State	12	8	4								
Family living style:											
Intact	10	1	3	6							
Single	10		3	3	3	1					
Recombined	11			2	1	4	3		1		
HOME PROBLEMS											
Youth experiencing parental—											
Alcohol abuse	12		1	2	2	1	4	1			1
Drug abuse	12	8	3			1					
Health problems	11	6	4		1						
Inadequate housing	11	4	4	1	1			1			
Inadequate income	10	1	2	1		2		2	1	1	
Unemployment	10	3	3		1	1	1		1		
Poor sibling relationships	12		2	4	1	3	2				
Changes in household within 1–3 yr	10		2		1	1	1	2	2		1
Youth experiencing parental neglect	12	1	1			3		2	3		2
Youth experiencing parental abuse	11		1		6	1	1	2			
Youths' living situation at program contact:											
Home	12	1	2	1		4	2		2		
Relatives	12	6	5	1							
Friends/street	12	4	5	1	1	1					
Other systems	12	3	2	5	1	1					
Placement:											
Multiple placement	10	1	2	1			1		4		1
Foster care	11	1	3	1	2	2	2				
Group homes	11	2	1	2	2	2	1			1	
Adoptive homes	11	10	1								
Juvenile justice/probation/police	11	4	3	3		1					
Mental health	11	8	2	1							
Develop mentally disabled (including mental retardation)	11	11									
Youths experiencing:											
Institutional abuse	11	9	1	1							
Institutional neglect	11	3	1		2		2	1		2	
Youths' medical problems	12	2	1	2	3		1		2		1
Youths' prior counseling	12		2		2		1	2	2	3	

Although several of the programs felt that the homeless youth population was equally divided by sex, there was a subtle variation in data indicating the presence of slightly more homeless males than

females. Whereas four programs indicated they had more female clients, five programs stated they served more males. However, there were striking differences in the ages of homeless male and female homeless young people. The breakout by program finding is as follows:

Males—Average age:	Number of programs	Females—Average age:	Numbers of programs
14	1	14	1
14–15	—	14–15	1
15	2	15	6
16	4	16	2
16–17	3	16–17	1
18	2	18	1

Ten programs indicated the average age of homeless females was between 14 and 16 years; two programs assessed the average age between 16½ and 18. This compares dramatically with the age distribution of homeless males; five programs state the average age is 16½ to 18 and considerably fewer males are between 14–16 years old. Explanations given by programs for the wide age discrepancy between the sexes were as follows: mother-daughter control issues and continued societal constraints on feminine behaviour; tendency of young women to be street-wise earlier than males; females having older boyfriends surmising they will take care of them; less resources for daughters in Mexican-American families to be socially active due to traditional cultural restraints; tendency of girls who are sexually abused to leave home and seek service sooner than abused boys. It appears that although there are slightly more homeless males than females, young women have to leave home at a significantly earlier age.

In general, the ethnicity of homeless youth corresponded to the local population of the community. Most of the runaway programs contacted are located in predominantly Caucasian areas of the country; the major exceptions to this were SAJA, District of Columbia, where 85 percent of the clients are black; The Bridge Emergency Shelter, San Antonio, Texas, where 55 percent of the youth are Mexican-Americans and the Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter, where 50 percent of the young people are Native Americans. The fact that the majority of youths served are Caucasian does not imply that minority youths are not also being forced out of their homes. In fact, runaway programs located in Arizona, California and Nevada are currently studying the whereabouts of homeless minority youth who are not coming into programs; whether they are obtaining services; where their resources are located and the role played by extended families.

In conjunction with ethnicity of homeless youth is the finding that eleven out of twelve programs indicate 70 percent of the youth served comes from local areas, either within a radius of several miles or in the same county. Data reveals that only about 10 percent of homeless youth travel across the States of origin and another 10 percent comes from outside the State. Evidently, homeless youth do not usually hit the road or travel to distant areas; the majority of homeless young people stay pretty close to and in touch with their original communities. Homeless youth are not generally composed of strangers or somebody else's children; they are a homegrown, local problem.

In the discussions of family living style, it was defined that intact family consisted of two original parents; single family meant one adult

in the house, whether original parent or step-parent and recombined family included step-parents by remarriage or male/female friends living with the original parent. Of course, there are endless variations but for purposes of the interviews, these three categories were determined to be sufficient. According to the data, only 30 percent of homeless youth come from intact families. Programs indicated that at least 10–50 percent come from single parent families. Other programs found that the number living in recombined families ranges from 20–80 percent. Clearly, the most prevalent family typology is the recombined category; two-thirds of the programs indicated that 40–60 percent of homeless youth are now living with new step-parents or mom's or dad's boy/girlfriend. This data reflects the currently changing marriage mores and living arrangements across the United States. Although there has been much recent discussion of the increase of single parent families, it is also noteworthy that many single parents do not remain in that condition permanently.

> For many children, living in a one-parent family is a transitory experience. Many single parents reconcile with their spouses, remarry, or marry for the first time. The number of children living in a single-parent family in any given year is thus far lower than the number who will have this experience during some portion of their childhood. In 1977, 17.7 percent of American children were living with one parent. However, of the children living with two parents, an estimated 10 percent were living with a biological parent and a step-parent, indicating that they had spent some time in a single-parent family. Analysis of national data on changing patterns of marriage and living arrangements suggests that if current conditions persist, approximately 45 percent of all children born in the mid-1970's will live in a one-parent family at some point during their childhood. [13]

Of that number, many will certainly be incorporated into recombined families, and recombination is a very significant percentage factor in homeless youth.

According to the Place Runaway Shelter in Boston:

> Very soon after a divorce, the single parent begins to entertain friends and expand former lifestyles. It's not a long time before theres' a new relationship and soon after, a new person moves in. The kid is confused and must accept it—there's no process to work it out. The kid says "there's nothing to worry about" but begins to act out. The parent says "this is my life" and feels that in three or four years he/she will be alone and doesn't want to give up the new relationship. No one knows how to deal with the interjection of the third person, who doesn't know the family, either. [14]

In order to have a better understanding of the causes of becoming homeless, it is imperative to find out what is going on in those families prior to youth being forced out. It is of crucial importance to learn more about the home situation and the factors influencing youths' perception that their situation has become intolerable.

One of the most predominant problems in the home is the fact of parental abuse or alcohol. All programs found this to be a major factor in discussions with young people and indicated that 10–70 percent admitted parental drinking was a problem for them. Further refinement of data disclosed that five programs found parental alcohol abuse a problem for between 20–50 percent of the homeless youth and an additional four programs found it a factor for up to 60–70 percent of the young people. Examination of program responses revealed the lowest percentage of parental alcohol abuse was reported at the Bridge Emergency Shelter, San Antonio, Texas, where there is a large number of Mexican-Americans. The three highest percentages were noted

in SAJA, Washington, D.C. and the Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter, both 60 percent; COMITIS Runaway/Time-Out Program situated in a transient and rapidly growing community near Denver, 65 percent, and Youth-in-Need, located in St. Charles, a suburb of St. Louis, Missouri, 100 percent.

Proportionately, parental drug abuse did not seem to be nearly as extensive a problem as alcohol abuse. The majority of the programs felt only 10 percent of the homeless youth were experiencing this parental addiction and all concurred the abused substances were legal prescription drugs. The one response which indicated parental drug abuse as a difficulty for up to 30–40 percent of homeless youth was given by Youth-In-Need, the program which also indicated that 100 percent of the youth population was having trouble with parental use of alcohol. Of particular note is the fact that Youth-In-Need has been selected to initiate a model shelter program for maltreated adolescents.

Although poor parental health did not surface as a substantial problem for homeless youth, every program is aware that some youths are experiencing illness in their families. Six of the programs felt that up to 10 percent of the youth had been living with ill or injured parents while four programs felt that up to 20 percent had been in this condition. The most prominent reasons given for poor health included job related accidents, cancer, respiratory problems and asthma. Interface, located in Gainesville, Florida, indicated 35 percent of the young people raise issues concerning parents' health related to accidents, chronic, long-range back problems and kidney ailments. All of the programs did agree that major illness or injury in a family would certainly influence the stress level of all the members.

Program response to inadequate housing included concerns about poor housing stock in specific geographical locations, the number of people living in one unit and the fact of no housing being provided for youngsters at all. It was expressed that many young people are experiencing tension caused by tremendous overcrowding. Both Youth Emergency Service, University City, Missouri, and SAJA, Washington, D.C., noted that when housing conditions are below standard and living conditions are crowded, young people get squeezed out.

> There are multi-families in one apartment, ten to twelve people in two bedrooms, a lack of heat in winter and lack of outside space, the building is in bad shape and no repairs are made, with the result that no one gets any privacy and youth are pushed out. [15]
>
> When families are relocated, they do not take a new place big enough for an older kid—they just don't get a room for him. [16]

Another program reported an upper-class West Coast phenomenon of parents buying youngsters off by setting them up in their own apartments.

Parental unemployment and inadequate income were usually handled as a combined topic since the lack of jobs is intimately tied to the need for public assistance and a consequent subsistence level existence. Several of the programs have not yet experienced much unemployment in the community. According to COMITIS/Runaway Time Out, Aurora, Colorado, situated close to Denver, has a lot of industry including two large military installations and a burgeoning business in research and development in the energy field. Similarly, Towner House, notes that Tucson, Arizona is the site of a large military base, as well as industrial complexes belonging to IBM, Lear, and Hughes

Aircraft. Both of these programs noted a comparatively low percentage of parental unemployment, affecting only 15 percent of the homeless youngsters. The Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter indicated that parental unemployment is a factor for at least half of the homeless youth they see.

Stillwell is one of the poorest areas in the country. Many people are on State assistance and living at a bare subsistence level. Most kids here have very limited resources. [17]

Youth Emergency Service reports that:

Seventy percent of the families are on public assistance and any wages earned are also inadequate. Parental unemployment is at least 35 percent because people are unable to find jobs. [18]

However, the highest percentage of homeless youth experiencing inadequate family income was at SAJA in Washington, D.C., where it was estimated that up to 85 percent of the youth are in this situation.

According to the National Runaway Switchboard, economic concerns and worry about family finances is becoming an increasingly important and discussed issue.

Young people are very concerned about their own economic futures. They may have one or both parents laid off from work and they worry about having money when their own parent's don't have a job. They wonder "is there a future for me?" They are now in high school and will soon be joining the workforce but it looks like there may be no work force to join. This is more important to kids now than their own teenage jobs. [19]

In general, it was felt that many families of homeless young people experienced substantial money worries, lack of adequate income, concern over possible future parental lay-offs, as well as underemployment and unemployment.

The data revealed that poor sibling relationships were found to be a major cause of conflict and was identified as a significant problem for homeless youth. Five programs felt that from 40–60 percent of the homeless youth had experienced difficulties with other youngsters in the family. Samples include stress, tension, victimization and verbal fights resulting from establishment of another sibling as a role model; the presence of two sets of families, including step-children in one recombined home, older brothers beating up on younger sisters in cases where mothers work and brothers assume parenting roles and differences between parental values which are played out on the children by setting one sib against another. Youth-in-Need has been studying problems of sibling relationships in large families and data shows that 31 percent of the homeless youth have five plus siblings; in fact, seven or eight other children was the most common number of siblings in homeless youths' families. Program statistics also reveal that 42 percent of all general family conflict takes place in families with over five siblings. It is quite likely that adolescents in large families endure some parental rejection which they, in turn, project onto their other siblings, causing conflicts.

Four-fifths of all the programs felt that homeless youth had definitely undergone some significant disturbance in the family situation within the last few years. Five programs indicated that at least 60 percent of all homeless youth had gone through major life changes and SAJA estimated the percentage as high as 95 percent. The most common changes were impending parental divorce, actual divorce,

remarriage, parental male or female friend moving in and possibly out, to be replaced by still another unfamiliar adult; physical relocation due to parent job transfer; death of a relative who had lived with the family and a consequent of shift attention to youth.

There is usually some precipitating factor although the situation has been building over a period of time. It's like St. Helena; it builds and then explodes. [20]

Almost at the outset of the interviews, programs began to raise the issue of adolescent abuse and neglect by parents. Certainly, well before completion of the section on parental problems, programs were indicating a need to discuss abuse and neglect of homeless youth by their families. Either, these conditions are increasing, or at least, youth are now more willing to talk about neglect and abuse. Many of the programs contributed their own definitions of neglect, however, there was unanimous agreement that abuse has a destructive physical, sexual and emotional character. The breakout by program, according to the percent of homeless youth having been neglected or abused by parents is as follows:

	Number of programs
Neglected youth (percent):	
0 to 10	1
10 to 20	1
20 to 30	-----
30 to 40	-----
40 to 50	3
50 to 60	-----
60 to 70	2
70 to 80	3
80 to 90	-----
90 to 100	2
Abused youth (percent):	
0 to 10	-----
10 to 20	2
20 to 30	-----
30 to 40	6
40 to 50	1
50 to 60	1
60 to 70	2
70 to 80	-----
80 to 90	-----
90 to 100	-----

Ten out of twelve programs felt that over 40 percent of homeless youth had experienced parental neglect. According to The Shelter Runaway Center:

Probably 80 percent have been neglected. This takes the form of poor supervision, telling the kid to leave and locking him out of the house, to being unwilling to give the youth any real preparation for life, acting totally unconcerned about youths' schooling and not providing adequate medical care. [21]

The Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter concurs with the 80 percent estimate of youth being neglected.

A lot of kids have parents who don't like teenagers and they belittle or ignore them. Others, are constantly on them, telling the kids they can't do anything right. They call them "retarded" or "strange." [22]

SAJA states:

50 to 60 percent of the homeless youth have been neglected by the lack of parental supervision and discipline. There's also economic neglect, when a parent never gives the youngster any money or new clothes. [23]

The viewpoint expressed by The Bridge Emergency Shelter is that:

40–50 percent are being emotionally neglected and their basic emotional needs are not being attended to. There's no interest in what the kid is doing which results in poor self-esteem. They just don't get an emotional "caring." [24]

Diogenes Youth Services also notes the lack of parental supervision or interest in youths' most basic needs.

There's a lot of non-verbal rejection by ignoring them which youth feel and translate as parents meaning "leave home—you don't exist." [25]

Two programs state 100 percent of homeless youngsters are neglected.

They have had a lack of food, housing, and supervision. Their families do not have the wherewithal or know-how to parent. The parents do not have security themselves; they are barely able to survive and hold a roof together let alone add pieces to make the home a healthy environment. [26]

Neglect ranges from not providing any supervision—not making any provision for the kids schooling to being locked in his room. There's no communication; parents are totally divorced from their kids. All the homeless youth have experienced neglect of one kind or another. Why else would they be out of their homes! [27]

In discussing abuse, six programs found abuse in 30–40 percent of homeless youth. An additional four programs figured the amount of abuse occurring was proportionately even higher and two programs indicated at least 60–70 percent of homeless young people had been abused. In total, ten out of eleven programs estimated that from 30 to 70 percent of homeless youth were abused. The Director of the Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter observes that 40 percent of homeless young male and female Native Americans have been sexually abused, usually in alcohol related episodes.

Generally, a drunken father or step-father comes rambling in and jumps into a daughter or son's bed. The family may be living way out in the hills, there is no one else around and the isolation certainly contributes to it. [28]

The Shelter Runaway Center has found that:

60–65 percent of homeless youth have been physically beaten, punched out, slapped around and threatened with guns and knives. Sexual abuse ranges from molestation to rape. The percent of homeless abused kids on the street is very high. An initial study of street prostitutes has shown that 50 percent were sexually abused as children. A pilot study on male prostitutes is now in work and we expect to see the same percentages hold true. [29]

Young people are beginning to talk more about being abused although abusive actions are not always given as the presenting problem and may be revealed later, in counseling sessions, during examination by medical staff or when youth express their fears about returning home. Often, it is not until youngsters begin to talk about their current anxieties that a full description of past beatings emerges; beatings with belts, mop handles, brooms and shoes. Although young people are beginning to be less afraid to reveal sexual abuse, it may be more obliquely phrased as "my step-father may try to touch me but sometimes kids come right out and say he wants me to go to bed with him." [30] Another program reports youth initially express sexual abuse as:

I'm not going home. I don't want to deal with my family—and it all unfolds from there. Many times, these kids do not even know they are being abused. They think no ones' parents like them at this age; that everyones' family is like this. They do not understand there are good productive families in the community and do not know what being a good parent means. [31]

According to the National Runaway Switchboard, there are now nearly four times as many calls concerning child abuse being received as there were three years ago.

In 1976, 1 percent of the total calls taken by the NRS were child abuse related while in 1979 that figure jumped to 3.5 percent. While 3.5 percent may seem like a small percentage at first glance, it translates into approximately 5,033 teenagers just last year. And we know that certainly not all of the child abuse victims call. In fact, a small percentage recognize the problem and asks for help. [32]

In an interview July 1980, the Executive Director of the NRS revealed that close to 50 percent of the calls by homeless youth indicated physical or sexual abuse with little difference in the amount of sexual abuse between males and females.

There were a number of theories offered concerning the average age of onset of abuse and neglect. Many programs felt that neglect often started in early childhood, continued as a chronic condition and reblossomed in adolescence. However,

Verbal abuse of kids starts at a very young age. As babies, they have experienced a lot of parental anger and screaming and by the time they are five or six they are well educated. This early education in abuse has a lasting effect and can cause personality changes. Parents need to understand that they can't act this way and that they are damaging their children. [33]

There was an impression that physical abuse was manifest in the family by early childhood, illustrated by spanking and use of more corporal punishment than warranted, eventually becoming fixed in a pattern of hitting and beating. Some programs saw the onset of sexual abuse by aged four to five, manifested by fondling; other programs estimated that abuse began between eight and nine years and a few thought sexual abuse started at adolescence as a response to obvious teenage physical and sexual maturation. At adolescence, abuse is often related to the youths' need for independence and expanding assertiveness. In reaction, parents may interpret growth as defiance.

This is a whole new thing. When 13, 14 and 15 year olds begin to stretch out, parents don't have the tools to deal with kids and they resort to violence. It is possible that there may have been some history of child abuse in the family or other inappropriate discipline, however, parents who abuse adolescents are not the psychotic parents who abuse young children.

Adolescent abuse is more of a family dynamic and is responsive to the youth's pressure to grow up. There is probably something causing stress in the family at this time. [34]

Whatever the age at onset, the effects of abuse and neglect are very damaging and young people find it extremely threatening to handle.

Whether the abuse is re-occurring or begins to escalate in the teens, kids are never able to deal with early childhood abuse and are still trying to handle the trauma when they come into programs at adolescence. [35]

In identifying living situations of homeless youth, directly prior to program contact, seven out of twelve programs estimated the majority of young people came straight from home. This was particularly clear for Diogenes, California (80 percent) and Interface, Florida (75 percent), surprising statistics considering the favorable weather conditions in these two States.

Two programs, Place Runaway House and Shelter Runaway Center, estimated from 40 to 50 percent of its youth were from the streets. Although Place Runaway House is located in Boston's Back Bay sec-

tion, composed mainly of middle-upper class, transient, singles, it is within walking distance of a large group of youth who have been living on the street for some time.

> We see kids who have been out there two or three months and they like the street game. Kids at 13 and 14 think it's exciting and the street life has a positive image. [36]

The Shelter Runaway Center operates an active outreach program and its staff is both aware of the number of street youth and recruiting from this population. According to the Director:

> We see young people who have been homeless and on the street for two years. Many of them end up as prostitutes and we have at least 250 kids in Seattle on the street right now. We need transition houses to get them off the street but there aren't any. Kids who have not lived at home for years do not need a Mom and Dad model in a foster home, but a place where they can get intensive staff support, nurturing and caring but not Mom and Dad. [37]

Few of the programs found a high percent of homeless youth coming directly from relatives, with the exception of SAJA, Washington, D.C., where it was estimated that approximately the same percent (30 percent) of youth came from relatives as from parents. This may reflect the cultural tradition of the role of extended families in the black community.

Due to their referral sources, nine out of twelve programs estimated that between 10 to 20 percent of the youths were coming from the juvenile justice or child welfare systems and the highest number of programs placed the percentage of homeless youngsters coming from placement at 20 to 30 percent. Although some youth are referred by police or courts on an emergency basis until other arrangements are made, many young people appear to be AWOL from the systems. Data from Place Runaway House discloses that from January through June, 1979, 63 out of 300 youngsters came directly from placement as follows: [38]

	Percent
Foster care	59
Group Home	22
Juvenile Justice	2
Residential Treatment	8
Boarding Schools (child welfare)	10

Further, additional data collected during the same period reveals multiple placements of 141 youths:

	Percent
One prior placement	38
Two–five placements	54
Six plus placements	8

Although runaway programs do not generally refine intake data by prior placement, all the programs concurred that at least 10 percent up to 100 percent of the youths coming from the systems had experienced multiple placements. Further estimates by the programs indicated belief that the comparatively highest percentage of youths were coming from group homes, including large child welfare institutions; the second highest number were coming from foster-care and a lower percentage from the juvenile justice system. Two programs estimated an equal placement distribution between foster-care, group homes and juvenile justice facilities. The fact that most programs account for group homes as the most seen placement for the highest percentage of

youths, indicates that homeless youth have been in the system for some time.

The Director of Social Services at The Bridge Emergency Shelter states:

> The cycle runs foster-care, group home, juvenile justice. They go down the system as the problems become bigger. We have a [illegible] "larger numbers of failures behind, more likely to get into trouble." [39]

The Executive Director of South Bend Youth Services Bureau comments:

> They zing in and out of here! Foster-care placements for adolescents are at a premium. Some families have six to eight adolescents and that's too many to handle. When kids fail in foster-care, they go to group homes and are threatened, "you better make it in this group home or go to an institution or closed facility." The institutions are too large to give any individual attention and there's no work done with the original family. By the time the child gets out of institutions and runs here, the family is not willing or interested in making a place for him again. Step by step, they fall all the way. Welfare moves in on them too quickly, takes them out of home and just drops them off. There's no hope at all for those in the system to return home, particularly if the kid is quiet, does not mess up or cause the institution any trouble. [40]

Youngsters are not abused or neglected solely by families. Often they experience these conditions in the very programs in which they are placed for protection or treatment. In defining institutional abuse as "excessive confinement", "drug restraint", "harsh physical punishment", "severe behaviour restrictions", most of the programs responded that there was a relative decrease in abuse since the enactment of the 1974 Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act, and its mandate that every juvenile, whether in custody or committed,

> shall be provided with adequate food, heat, light, sanitary facilities, bedding, clothing, recreation, counseling, education, training, and medical care including necessary psychiatric, psychological, or other care and treatment. [41]

However, several of the programs felt there remains a residue of abuse and they still hear from youths about episodes of corporal punishment and drugging.

In defining institutional neglect as "inappropriate placement", and "lack of program", the picture changed. Programs expressed the finding that youngsters are "getting lost in the numbers and not getting their individual needs met", "they have been inappropriately placed; some in foster-care need to be in group homes with more structure or shouldn't have been in mental health facilities", "kids are dumped in homes and left; they are not checked routinely", "there are no services, not much is happening, there's no program." According to the National Runaway Switchboard:

> We don't ask about multiple placements although it's a chronic problem and we hope to do more in the future. It's a touchy area for young people and they often lie. They don't want anyone to know that other people helped them before and there has been a failure. They think that means the failure was theirs and they have a stigma of being unsuccessful. Ninety-nine percent of the homeless youth who have been in placement have the perception that they have been abused or neglected by institutions. They express that they have been shuffled from one home to the next, not asked what they want to do, no one cared about them, and they are not consulted in decision making about their life arrangements. [42]

When questioned about educational performance, five out of twelve programs estimated that the highest percentage of homeless

youth were functioning at the 7th–8th grade level. A comparison of the educational performance level with the average chronological age of youth served by each program disclosed there were no substantial differences. Youths performing at grades four through eight were just as likely to be 14, 15, 16 or 17 years old. The sole variation was that no programs were seeing youth at an average age of 18, who were performing at a 4th grade school level. The lowest education performance level of youths aged 18 was the 6th grade.

Common medical problems of homeless youngsters are venereal disease, pregnancy, asthma, poor hygiene, inadequate nutrition and the need for dental care. Place Runaway House and Shelter Runaway Center indicated that 80 percent and 100 percent respectively of homeless youth have medical problems. This is not unexpected because these two programs also serve the highest number of young people coming directly from the street. According to the Executive Director, Place Runaway House, "They are unaware of themselves and their bodies. They need to learn and become aware of the self as a resource to be taken care of." [43]

A large majority of homeless young people have had some kind of prior counseling, whether under the aegis of school, public assistance, juvenile justice, mental health or child welfare systems. Eight out of twelve programs noted that over 50 percent of the youth had been exposed to professional help.

A kid can't float around without touching base with someone. Most services have counseling—the kids have been through the system and can play at it. [44]

In response to the effectiveness, of counseling, one program replied:

It's been proven that counseling is ineffective—why do we keep doing it? The goal of counseling is not related to kids' goals but to someone elses' expectations whether it's the community, school or an individual. It's not relevant to kids and there's no genuine commitment to assist youth in making decisions and taking responsibility. Counseling services are adult-oriented. [45]

Another program asserted that counseling is not effective because

the kid feels they are all just trying to talk him into going home and abiding by his family's rules. The youngster does not feel advocacy support from his counselor—the counselor's goal is to get the youth to agree and to mind. [46]

A slightly different viewpoint was expressed by the Executive Director of Towner House:

For some, counseling has been very good. That's why the kid has survived so long, because of the help and support. For others, counseling has been very poor and has caused part of the problem. For a lot of them, no amount of counseling would help. [47]

Until this point, data collected, although based on impressions and estimates, was still tied to percentages and statistical comparisons. In order to get a more immediate feel for the problems of homeless youth, a number of interpretative questions were asked. These questions were purposely worded loosely in order to give free rein to individuality and personal expression. Programs were requested to discuss reasons youth give as the main causes of their homeless condition, staffs' assessment of homeless youths' expectations for their futures, what programs think will happen to these young people and what changes those working with youth have seen in the homeless population.

Homeless youth identify the cause of their condition as severe conflict with parents which result in them being thrown out of the house.

No matter what the variations of the precipitating incidents, the bottom line is always the same—the young person is told to leave. Although there is now a new Federal classification of youth away from home by "mutual consent," this is a highly suspect definition. There is no way of determining ground rules or factors influencing that alleged mutality of consent. Regardless, homeless youth are rejected by families, completely and with finality. According to Towner House:

When we call parents to verify the circumstances of a youngster's case, we find that parents want nothing to do with him. The young person says "my parents don't want me—my home doesn't want me" and the parent tells us, "I need a life of my own. My new husband doesn't like the kid here. We've tried everything and he won't do what I say."[48]

The National Runaway Switchboard reports:

When we call the homes, we find an increasing number of parents won't take messages from the young person and who say "I don't want anything to do with him." This is after a cooling off period when the child has been out of the home a while and the parents have had time to think things over—and this is what they come up with. Imagine having to tell a young person that his family doesn't even want to hear his message.[49]

Economic factors too, cause youngsters to become homeless and often, when inadequate finances result in family stress, an adolescent is pushed out. Another rising influence is family alcohol abuse. "The topics we now hear most often from homeless youth are economic and concern about their own drinking as a problem, as well as family alcoholism."[50] The Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter reports. "The two biggies are 'we can't communicate with parents' and 'they treat me bad.' The next is 'my parents drink—I can't take it anymore.'" [51]

Once homeless youth have been on their own and come to programs for help, they present a curious profile. Although worried about the next meal and a place to sleep, they are at the same moment certain they can take care of themselves, be independent, support themselves, buy a car, and live happily ever after. Programs most often use the terms "unrealistic" and "fantasizing" in characterizing these young people and find they have absolutely no conception about skills needed in daily life. They have no training or experience in getting a job, finding an apartment, setting up a budget.

They are past reality. They don't want anyone to tell them what to do *ever*. They want a job so they can have money, but then drop out of school so they aren't prepared to get a job. We try and bring them down to reality.[52]

Emotionally, they also seem to swing between euphoria and depression.

Some are sure they will survive and can make it on their own but 10–15 percent are totally devastated and perceive that they are completely helpless. [53]

Their expectation to fail underlies everything their self-concept is so poor and their success rate is so low in everything they do. A 13 or 14 year old thinks he can be out on his own because he has a totally unrealistic impression of what the world is about. [54]

Having indicated the reasons young people give for being homeless and discussing youths' expectations for themselves in the world, the programs shared some thoughts as to what would probably happen to these young people. In the short run, programs hoped to help homeless youth stabilize in crisis and get them into safe situations where they could function. They expressed a desire to help them generate feelings of self-worth, an ability to handle situations and in adversity, continue to cope.

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We want to let them know we are concerned about them as people and that they are valued. We try to impress on them that they are responsible for their behaviour, what they do and what they say, and they cannot push their own feelings off on others by blaming parents, teachers and saying it's all someone else's fault. [55]

Long range programs are very pessimistic in their expectations for future life options of homeless youth. They saw few viable opportunities for them and shared a sense that these young people will probably repeat their own histories, abuse their own children and eventually throw them out. It was felt that unless some means could be found to break the cycle, the phenomenon and pattern of homeless youth would be perpetuated by the current youth population on the next generation. The more positive comments included:

Most will muddle through but since parents and schools are not providing preparation which enables kids to function appropriately in the community, a lot will experience trouble on their own. A lot more of them will be involved in social or judicial services and during the first years, they will have to learn as a result of the mistakes they will make. Some will make it but it will be tough. [56]

I can't be optimistic about a large number of the kids. Realistically, with the right things happening they could build on small successes. However, most won't graduate high school and a lot will repeat the same cycle. By the time a kid gets to the program, the patterns are already set. [57]

There is a percentage that can be worked with, who have a competent functioning level and they are the middle group who will live like many present adults. At one end of the bell curve there will be those ending up in adult corrections and mental institutions; at the other end will be those who overcome through independent living. [58]

There were also many negative appraisals.

Kids who have been floating around for a while become mentally and emotionally numb, stifled. They have not been able to get a job or apartment; they have been caught in placement which did not work out well because there was a lack of services. They will be a frustrated segment of the population; they'll get married, divorced, have kids, be abusive parents, involved in alcoholism and have nothing more than a neutral self-image. They will tend to see themselves as victims, impotent, as someone else's responsibility. [59]

Kids won't be returning home. We get one kid after another from the same family. The problem is not just between one person and the rest of the family, but involves the entire family, including wife abuse and more generalized violence. Homeless kids are more hopeless because they have no expectation of returning home. They know they can't go back and it's a major change in their lives. [60]

Homeless kids don't make it. There will be a large number ending up in the city workhouse or state penitentiary. We are watching kids go into situations they can't come out of and it's a real scary number that go down the tubes. [61]

It's a bleak outlook for homeless kids who have no adult taking care of them and providing emotional support. They float around, latch onto someone, get married, are underemployed and continue the same cycle. The girls will get pregnant to have someone to care for but won't know how to parent. Their kids will be tossed out. I don't see being homeless as positive in any way, shape or form. We shudder when we see a young person from a family of eight little brothers and sisters. We know we're going to get each one. [62]

The homeless youth frighten me more than any other population. I see less out there for them to connect into. I'm rather fearful when homeless youngsters go through the program because I see a lot of failure in front of them; some of it, the kids set up but part of it is set up for them. Chances are higher we will see them again. [63]

Faced with such a grim future projected for homeless young people, it was important to know what changes may have taken place with this population; whether the situation has improved or deteriorated. Replies indicated that the homeless condition has in fact changed—

there are more homeless youngsters, they are younger and more homeless youths are resorting to suicide.

More homeless youth.—The increased numbers of youth who are homeless appear to reflect the decreased ability or willingness by parents to take responsibility for them by investing time and energy in helping them grow toward adulthood. According to programs, at the time of adolescence, parents seem to give up on their children much faster than before and they rely more heavily on social services systems to "parent" for them. It is quite common for parents to feel that schools, courts and social workers are taking care of youngsters' needs and consequently, shrug off their traditional roles. The number of homeless youth has also risen because once out, parents are often unwilling to let youth return, reconsider or reconciliate. Due to stress and other pulls on the family, parents are relieved when the youth is gone and feel their job is done and the chapter complete. Towner House reports, "Overall, families are more dysfunctional. Our cases are much more difficult and severe than they were three to four years ago." [64] The National Runaway Switchboard is a source of hard data since it keeps track of all the calls it receives (Appendix J).

Our 1979 statistics, released just this week, show some disturbing changes. The number of calls from young people who have been thrown out of their home has increased tremendously.

During 1976, 1.8 percent of total calls were from throwaways. By 1979, that percentage has jumped to 3.9 percent. [65]

Based on a 1979 total number of 143,797 calls, this means that over 5,600 homeless young people called in for help. However, the National Runaway Switchboard is obviously only able to account for the number of youngsters who do make contact and it is believed that in 1972 there were a million young people on the road. In recent testimony, Cesar A. Perales, Acting Assistant Secretary for Human Development Services, Department of Health, Education and Welfare reported a 1975 national survey revealed 733,000 runaways annually.

Our experience leads us to believe that the number has remained constant over the years. What has increased, since 1975, however, is the number of homeless youth, especially in the 16 and 18 year range, who have been pushed out by their families. Our data shows that nearly one-third of the youth served by our programs are in this category. [66]

These figures indicate that there are almost 242,000 homeless youngsters in the United States. Another estimate comes from Steve Rorke, Executive Director of the National Network of Runaway and Youth Service who says, "there are 1 to 2 million runaways nationally and one-fourth of them, 500,000 are homeless youth." [67]

Younger homeless youth.—There is a current trend for youngsters to become homeless at an earlier age and it is not unusual for programs to find eleven and twelve year old children coming to their doors. In speaking with these children, it often turns out they previously had to leave home several times within the last year. Shelter Runaway Center finds they are seeing

fourteen year old youths who have been living on the streets for two years and kids hooking at 11 and 12. There has been a societal change of focus on younger children as sex objects; child porno is "the kicks." There's a buyer's market for kids on the street and we always see kids, for whom there aren't any resources, supplying that market. [68]

Towner House has begun to get a sizable group of young boys, aged eleven to thirteen, brought to the program by a single parent or other relative who doesn't want them home. Although these are not runaways nor yet on their own, they are just one step away from becoming homeless. [69]

More suicides.—Homeless youth evince a high level of severe depression and in some cases, are suicidal. A number of programs feel there is an increase in suicides in the homeless population due to the cumulative effect of poor self image, unavailability of people to meet their needs and prolonged emotional neglect. When young people find their parents impotent, helpless and hopeless, they realize there are few options for themselves. Suicide has now become a choice for teenagers, particularly in a world where nothing much seems permanent or forever. The National Runaway Switchboard notes there is an increase in suicide calls.

Kids are more aware of world problems than ever before and they feel they are carrying the burdens of their home and community. They don't have the mechanism to cope with so much stress and pressure. Another aspect of adolescent depression is that parents are allowed to abuse their children now. In the past, parents did not consider throwing their kids out. The only homeless youngsters were orphans. Now, there is a trend to turn youths over to welfare as wards of the state. Because of emphasis on personal freedom and changing roles in society, adults want to live their own lives and have rights of their own, not just be a parent. It's much less unacceptable today for parents to divorce their children. [70]

PUBLIC AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICES

There are a number of traditional systems which could be used as resources for services for homeless youth. These include child welfare agencies, the juvenile justice and correctional systems, residential drug abuse and mental health programs and the public assistance bureaucracy. The question of youths' chronological age is of paramount importance in determining whether a young person is eligible for help from a particular system. Age is also relevant to programs' capabilities to provide needed services. Although these institutions and systems can certainly supply shelter and food, they are not necessarily appropriate living situations for homeless youth.

Child welfare system

The child welfare system is called upon most often by parents, relatives, other agencies and the courts in cases of neglect, abuse, abandonment, delinquency and status offenses. It is also used by families who are unable or no longer willing to cope with youngsters and assign their parental responsibilities to the State. However, it should be clarified that the majority of reasons for placing young people in foster-care are parent centered reasons, not child-related problems; a high penalty for youngsters to pay. According to an in-depth study. "Foster Care Needs and Alternatives to Placement":

> It is the problems of parents rather than the problems of children which cause the vast majority of foster placements—almost 80 percent of the total. Two types of parental problems stand out as the primary reason for foster placement—parental unwillingness to care for the child and emotional or behavior problems afflicting the parent. It should be noted, however, that parents frequently have multiple problems. Thus, although drug addiction or alcoholism account for 2.5 percent of the primary reasons for placement, about 20 to 25 percent of the parents are addicted or alcoholic. [71]

Another comprehensive report, "State of the Child: New York City II," reveals:

> Older children are more likely to be placed in care as a result of their own problems. While child related problems made up of 5.8 percent of the reasons for placement of children under 6, they accounted for 34.3 percent of the reasons for children 14 and over [72] (Attachment II).

Although older children may be more problematical, it should be noted that conversely, 65.7 percent, or the majority of the reasons for placement are still parent problem.

APPENDIX TABLE 101.—NEW YORK CITY CHILDREN IN FOSTER CARE, BY REASON FOR PLACEMENT AND CURRENT AGE, JUNE 1979

[In percent, except total numbers]

		Current age		
	Total[1]	Under 6	6–13	14 and over
Total number of children[2]	26,043	5,028	9,961	10,962
Family reasons:				
Death	4.8	0.7	4.3	7.2
Mentally defective	3.2	2.6	3.7	3.1
Mentally ill	7.2	6.1	7.5	7.5
Physically ill	3.3	1.9	3.2	4.1
Alcoholic	5.8	3.3	6.3	6.7
Drug addicted	6.0	7.8	8.1	3.5
Hospitalized	1.9	3.7	2.2	.8
Arrested or in prison	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.0
Other confinement	.9	.6	.8	1.2
Surrendered child	1.5	.6	1.6	1.9
Intends to surrender child	1.6	3.7	1.2	1.1
Abandoned child	8.5	10.0	9.3	7.1
Abused child	4.6	5.6	5.7	3.2
Neglected child	15.3	19.7	17.2	11.7
Parental request	8.6	14.3	7.5	7.1
Unable to cope	38.0	29.6	39.4	40.8
Inadequate housing	6.4	10.9	6.9	3.9
Inadequate finances	3.1	4.2	3.2	2.4
Family emergency	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2
Parental conflict	5.1	2.5	4.7	6.7
Sibling conflict	1.7	(3)	1.3	2.8
Parent-child conflict	11.2	.6	6.3	20.6
Child reasons:				
School behavior	13.5	(3)	10.6	22.4
Home behavior	17.3	.2	14.1	28.1
Community behavior	7.3	.1	5.0	12.7
Physical problem	2.0	3.0	2.3	1.2
Mental problem	5.1	1.0	4.6	7.4
Foundling	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.0
Unmarried pregnancy	1.4	2.7	.5	1.8
Runaway	2.2	.1	1.1	4.2
Other	3.2	5.7	2.5	2.7
Unknown	.5	.4	.5	.5
Not reported	5.0	3.6	5.5	4.7
Total number of reasons given	51,405	7,442	18,701	25,227
Family reasons	73.1	90.5	77.8	64.5
Child reasons	25.2	5.6	20.8	34.3
Other	1.6	3.9	1.4	1.2

[1] Includes 92 children whose ages were not reported.
[2] Number of reasons is greater than the total number of children and percentages add to more than 100 percent because as many as 3 reasons may be reported for each case.
[3] Less than 0.05 percent.

Sources: Child Welfare Information Services, Inc., New York City Reports, June 30, 1979, series A, tables 13 and 16; Trudi W. Lash, Heidi Sigal, Deanna Dudzinski, State of the Child: New York City II, Foundation for Child Development, New York City, June 1980, p. 287.

Although there is an extensive network of voluntary agencies to deal with young people who cannot return home, homeless youth cannot obtain these services voluntarily. Youth cannot knock on doors of welfare agencies and be readily admitted to shelter in a group or foster home. In general, they must first be "placed" by the public system, Special Services for Children or by the Family Court, having been labeled neglected, abused, truant, runaway or "incorrigible," a flexible catchall designed to cover a multitude of behaviours. The symbiotic relationship between the public system and the voluntary agencies is based on funding. The Comptroller of the City of New York states:

Many of these agencies have long and distinguished histories as "charitable institutions" providing services to needy children and their families. In their early days they relied heavily on private contributions and donations. Today,

however, they typically derive 90 percent or more of their income from the City of New York, paid on a per diem reimbursement basis for days of care provided. [73]

The public agency must approve placement of every youngster before an agency can be reimbursed for services provided. Consequently, a voluntary agency that wished to accept homeless youth, directly from the street without prior approval, runs a very high risk of not being paid for that care. In addition, "the reimbursement rates have never included the full amount of operating costs nor have they included any allowance for depreciation or capital expense." [74] Voluntary agencies often prefer to spend their privately donated funds on administration or on building renovation, but not on providing care for homeless youths who are outside the child care system.

Youth in need may be given emergency shelter and food by the public system while they are waiting for placement in a more permanent living situation. Nonetheless, there may be a considerably long delay in finding a place for the youngster; a delay caused in part by complications in locating a voluntary agency whose criteria the young person will fit. These numerous proscriptions include age, I.Q., nature of emotional or physical problems or even willingness of parents to cooperate with a particular treatment plan, the latter being a difficult criteria for homeless youth whose uncooperative parents want nothing to do with him. One typical example of agency guidelines for admission for youngsters aged 12 through 17 is:

Will not accept: paraplegic, non-ambulatory, unable to care for own basic needs, brain damage (severe), mongolism, mental retardation (trainable, moderated (severe, profound), pyromania, psychosis, homosexual (overt), autism, alcoholic, and drug addiction. [75]

For many adolescents, the sincere effort to place them in appropriate settings does not work out. They go back to the streets, stay with friends or hustle until picked up in the net of various local authorities, are placed in another living situation and begin the placement cycle anew.

As of March 31, 1977, Child Welfare Information Services, Inc. reported that 28,758 youngsters were living out of home and in the care of the child welfare system. [76] A serious problem exists in that the majority of living situations available to adolescents are in foster family homes which may not be appropriate in meeting their needs. A recent study determined that, "Just over half of the children 12 to 18 years of age are currently inappropriately placed." [77] An examination of data discloses the bulk of inappropriate placements are in foster homes, while there is a pressing need for more adolescent group homes and residential treatment centers.[78] Further,

the number of adolescents who will need help in the future from the foster-care system is sharply increasing. It is anticipated that the number of adolescents requiring foster placement will rise to a peak of 14,520 by 1980 when they will constitute 52 percent of the foster care population. Though the absolute number should drop by 1985, the adolescent will still form more than half of the foster care population.[79]

The same study concludes that:

We need many more residential treatment centers. We need them now and we are going to need them five and ten years from now. We need them to serve a group of disturbed, vulnerable children, often truants or delinquents, who if they do not obtain the necessary residential treatment service, are likely to turn

into miserable unhappy adults prone to crime and other continuing serious emotional and behavioural problems.[80]

Whereas the identity of the future population who will need care and the particular kinds of care has already been discerned, it will take on-going dedicated and strenuous efforts by City government leaders, the public system and private agencies to responsively meet the needs of adolescents.

As the child care system presently exists, there is a legal obligation by the State to provide services to youth under 18 or through 21, if in school. Nonetheless, in practice, it is almost impossible to get help for young people after they have reached their sixteenth birthday. Entry into agencies is just about closed off at that age. According to data reported in the March 31, 1977 Child Welfare Information Services, Inc. [81] of the total youngsters entering care, the percentage of new youths at age 16 was 2.0 percent; at age 17, new entrants declined to 0.9 percent and at age 18 the percentage of new youths dropped to 0.1 percent. When contrasted with figures indicating that 42 percent of all new entrants are from birth to three years old, it is clear the system is heavily weighted toward younger, more manageable children. Additionally, statistics from the same report disclose that 97 percent of the bed spaces in the child care agencies were filled by youth aged one year through fifteen. This confirms the premise that foster-care is almost inaccessible to new adolescent entrants who also must compete for bed spaces with those adolescent youths who are already in the system.

Using the same data base, a review of youths placed in foster-care prior to adolescence shows that the number of those remaining in care at age 15 account for 8.5 percent of the total population. At age 18, the percent of youth declines to 4.4 percent giving validity to the hypothesis that the child care system dumps out older adolescents. A June 1980 report to the Mayor, "*Redirecting Foster Care*," included these findings: [82]

Extended care: 18 to 21. Foster children are generally supposed to be discharged from care upon reaching age 18 or, if attending college or vocational school, at age 21 when the plan is "discharge to own responsibility." State and City policies are vague and inconsistent, however, regarding the provision of foster care beyond age 18. It is not clear how much discretion SSC has in authorizing care for youth who are between 19 and 21 years of age. In addition, there is the question of how the objective "discharge to own responsibility" is treated by SSC and the voluntary agencies. Two foster youth interviewed by Task Force staff reported that the discharge objective is sometimes used as a threat by caseworkers to enforce good behaviour. Both youths indicated that many foster children are very concerned about being discharged without anywhere to go.

Post-release follow up

About 1,200 young persons were discharged to their own responsibility in the year ending September 30, 1979. Where did they go? What did they do? We know very little about what happened to them. A handful (16) were known to enter adult job training programs. Fifteen went on public assistance. The military enrolled 49. But by far, the largest number—1,124—were simply "released to their own responsibility." Whether they are employed, living stable lives, drifting in the streets, or in trouble with the law are questions for which the foster care system presently provides no information or answers.

The alleged premature "graduation" by agencies, the extreme difficulties of getting into care and staying in after age 16 and the inappropriate placement of over 50 percent of the adolescents makes the child care system somewhat unusable and suspect as an option for homeless youth.

Juvenile justice system

Young people don't seek out the services of the juvenile justice system, but their parents do. Under the designation of Persons in Need of Supervision (PINS), status offenders who have committed no criminal act, are brought to court by families who have given up and want them out of the home.

A PINS is usually brought to court for truancy, running away, or because parents and schools find it too difficult to deal with him or her. A large number of PINS are adolescent girls taken to court by their mothers for staying out late or getting into "trouble because of sex." Placement is needed less because they must be removed to protect the community than because they cannot be controlled and are not wanted at home. [83]

Since the enactment of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, status offenders (PINS) may no longer be placed in large or locked facilities. If the court finds it necessary to remove them from home, status offenders must be sent to small, open facilities located in communities near youngsters' families. Although these youths come under the auspices of the State Division for Youth, many of the young people actually end up in the voluntary child care agencies. It might be assumed that the voluntary programs would be less confining and, more in compliance with provisions of the Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1977 which mandates placement in "the least restrictive alternatives appropriate to the needs of the child and the community." [84] However, the Monthly Report to the Governor for March 1980 from the Division for Youth states:

The Division is now responsible for the monitoring and supervision of 45 voluntary agencies having more than 25 percent PINS and JDs.

The primary focus of the Division's Voluntary Agency Unit during 1980 will be the use of room isolation and restraint on those agencies we carry responsibility for. We will be offering technical assistance and will be evaluating programs to determine strengths and weaknesses of program and how to avoid using restraint and room isolation. As room isolation and restraint in the voluntary agencies is being used primarily with PINS children, we are especially concerned about the LEAA guidelines as they affect these agencies. [85]

Further, in the February, 1980 Governor's Monthly Report, the Division for Youth submits that:

Thousands of youth in New York State become involved in the social service and adult justice system because there is a shortage of accessible services which respond to their needs. Youth who become involved in these systems do not have their needs met through involvement in the social service, juvenile and adult justice systems because these systems are not designed to respond to their immediate concrete needs. Current policies tend to promote the misclassification of these youth as status offenders, juvenile offenders and delinquents and sometimes even criminals and channel them toward government services over which they have minimal control and no participation in. Expanding a more direct approach to the problems of these youths which makes crisis services more accessible to them and their families is advocated . . . in contrast to widespread policies and practices which promote misclassification and use of expensive governmental processing of questionable effectiveness. [86]

The State Division for Youth, although constrained by budget reductions operates an Independent Living and Hostel Program for forty youths who cannot return home upon completion of time spent in DFY facilities. The Clinical Director of the Tryon School, a State operated secure facility for twenty females and eighty males in limited secure placement asserts:

Over the last two years, we've seen an increase in the number of kids who can't return home. Everyone used to come in and say they want to go home when

they leave. Now, when they come here they say they will not be able to go home as it won't work out with their parents. Their home situations are so bad that we know right away we will have to start making other arrangements. [87]

Adult corrections

Certainly, youths at sixteen and over do not willingly enter the adult correctional system. Although it is supposed to provide some services for them, corrections staff readily admit that due to the fiscal crunch, there is little their system can offer young people while they are in the institutions or upon their release. Whether a teenager or an adult, all leave correctional facilities with one week's allowance in their pocket, to cover food and rent. After that minute bit of assistance is gone, youth are totally left on their own to re-enter the mainstream as best they can.

Drug abuse and mental health programs

In recent years, many of the drug abuse treatment and rehabilitation programs have changed their intake criteria to include youngsters who are not primarily drug abusers or addicts. Since self-referral is common and youth do not have to maneuver complicated bureaucracies or criteria for admission, these programs could provide a positive alternative for homeless youth. However, in general, drug abuse programs have not concurrently altered their treatment modalities to correspond with the needs of this population with the result that youngsters do not see them as positive options. A young person, whose main problem is lack of family, food and shelter, may have to trade away almost all personal freedom in order to remain in drug programs, endure severe restrictions on behaviour and be forced to participate in vigorous confrontation and encounter sessions.

Other homeless youth have learned to manipulate the mental health and hospital systems in order to find a place to stay. In the past, for purposes of admission, it was sufficient for youngsters to say they heard voices and were having delusions. Now, due to more stringent entry requirements, young people must portray themselves as psychotic and about to commit murder or suicide if they hope to be admitted to mental health programs.

After ending up sheltered and warm, fed and clothed by mental health and drug programs, youngsters pay by enduring restrictive program structure and lack of individual freedom. Homeless youth often flee from these facilities as soon as they can.

Public assistance—Department of Social Services

Homeless youth, between the ages of 16–20, can apply to the Department of Social Services in hopes of getting public assistance funds. (Home Relief) However, it is almost impossible for youngsters, detached from families to get assistance. Again, the major obstacle is stringent eligibility criteria. On March 30, 1976, in response to upstate legislators who were "concerned with the increasing number of 'hippies,' runaways and other deviant persons applying for Home Relief . . . and exploiting the taxpayers" [88] an amendment to the Home Relief Law was approved. The effect of the law made it extremely difficult for homeless youth to receive public assistance unless applicants' parents are *both deceased* or *both alive* and *both receiving either public assistance or Social Security Insurance benefits.*

In the event that not all of these criteria are met and proven, youth applying for public assistance must initiate legal support proceedings against the legally responsible parent. For youths who never knew both of their parents, where one parent has disappeared or youth have been thrown out of home, the prerequisites for receiving welfare are particularly harsh.

In cases where eligibility criteria can be met, youth must still document and substantiate their need for public assistance. The rejection rate at the first eligibility interview runs well over 50% and even if youths pass this hurdle, they must wait two weeks for the second interview to complete their applications. Very often, the opening line of questions focuses on methods youths employed to stay alive during the last two week interim period. Since many young people really do not want to admit the techniques they used, they do not give accurate answers. The result is that the mere fact of their evident survival is often used as proof that welfare is not needed and as grounds for disqualification for public assistance.

In summary, although the systems can provide a bed and three meals each day, they are not particularly appropriate or useful situations for adolescent youths who are homeless. Because of intake criteria, funding reimbursement procedures, rigid program structure and all the attending bureaucracy, the systems cannot respond to youth in a fast, flexible or sensitive manner. Homeless youth have to look elsewhere to try and meet their needs.

ALTERNATIVE PROGRAMS

The programs for homeless youth in New York City and Long Island, share common goals but have disparate histories, serve different populations and vary considerably in the resources and services provided. Some of the programs evolved from needs of changing communities; others were initially established as part of the child welfare juvenile justice or corrections systems and two programs on Long Island were set up as a direct outcome of the Runaway Youth Act.

Considering the numbers of homeless youth in New York City Nassau and Suffolk Counties, very few youngsters can receive the services they need from these dedicated programs. Most of the agencies indicate there are many more homeless youth than can be handled and when intake is unlimited, thousands more youths show up than are expected. Almost all of the alternative programs receive funding from the Runaway Youth Act, resulting from Congressional initiative and responsiveness to youth.*

Covenant House

In 1969, in the middle of a winter night, a group of six youngsters, aged 14–17, knocked on the tenement door of Father Bruce Ritter, a Franciscan priest and teacher of late medieval theology. The young people asked if they could sleep on the floor of his apartment because they had been living in an abandoned building in the East Village which had just been burned out by addicts in retaliation for the youths' refusal to be sexually exploited. Actually, that abandoned building

* In 1978, New York State approved legislation for runaways and homeless youth and in 1979, seventeen programs throughout the State received funds from the Act. An identical appropriation was approved in 1980.

was not the groups' first living arrangement; they had moved there after leaving Yonkers, where a couple had given them room and board in return for their participation in a porno film. Father Bruce agreed to let the youngsters stay on while he tried to locate places for them in the child care system but he recalls "they said that the kids were too old or too young, too drug-ridden or not sick enough. As a result, many of them were killed. Some jumped out of windows."[89] Consequently, he permitted the youths to remain with him rather than return them to the street. Each day, several more youngsters appeared at his door and with the help of student volunteers, Father Bruce took over additional empty apartments, cleaned them up and gave needy youngsters shelter and care. This was the beginning of Covenant House. For the following four years, it operated as an illegal child care agency, without charter or paid staff, out of compliance with State and City codes, funded by friends and associates but serving thousands of homeless youth, many of them victims of sexual exploitation. In 1972, Covenant House became incorporated as a child care agency and since then, it has expanded operations to include eight group homes for adolescents and two shelters for runaways and homeless youth.

In 1977, Covenant House set up a 24 hour, drop-in crisis center, Under 21, located in the Times Square area and heartland of the "Minnesota Strip" an almost mile long stretch of topless bars, strip joints, porno parlours and the main business center for prostitutes and pimps, many of them alleged runaways from the Mid-West.

> Thousands of runaways and nomadic adolescents are drawn to the Times Square area each year. These young people survive by panhandling, stealing, by exploiting and being exploited. Many, pehaps most, must touch at least temporarily the life of prostitution. Some, because they have no other way to provide themselves with food and shelter, adopt prostitution as a lifestyle. Although these youngsters may have numerous contacts with the police, they exist on the periphery of the juvenile justice and social service system. There is a total lack of service available to them in the Times Square area. There are no public or private agencies meeting the immediate and urgent needs of the runaway and delinquency-prone youth, hundreds of who can be seen in Times Square at literally any hour of the day and night, drifting and wandering. It's difficult to estimate the number of young people under 21 who inhabit, or more properly, subsist in this area. One police report stated that there were at least 10,000 homeless youth in Times Square at any one time. [90]

Although Under 21 expected to serve only 1,000 youngsters within its entire first year of operation, the demand for help proved so great that they actually provided service to 2,500 young people within the first six months. After three years, Under 21 has served a total of 14,000 youngsters and staff project the program will be contacted by 10,000 more youths during 1980.

Since Under 21 can offer a bed to a youngster for a limited time period, and only about 12 percent can be returned to families, there is a huge number of youths needing immediate living facilities. Since these facilities do not in fact exist, thousands return to the street and to prostitution. Father Bruce recently testified that:

> We do not see at Convenant House the problem of juvenile prostitution. We see it as merely an inordinate, an extraordinary number of homeless young people, many of them quite young, runaways, who turn to prostitution and street life simply in order to survive. The children do not themselves speak of themselves as being prostitutes. They call it "making a few bucks." Very few of them would like to consider themselves as prostitutes, and we in Covenant House do not do so

either. We consider them what they really are, we think, homeless children, who turn to prostitution simply in order to survive. [91]

For youngsters who come to Under 21 who are runaways or eligible for placement in the child welfare system, Convenant House has the option of entering the youngster in its own program, if any beds are available. However, for most of the thousands of youngsters, the options are few. During the brief time the youngster is at Under 21, staff is prepared to provide food, shelter, counseling, attempt to locate alternative living arrangements, arrange High School Equivalency programs, give job counseling and provide an often-needed medical examination. A top staff person at Under 21 notes:

To get help at any hospital, an under-age kid needs I.D., cash, and parent's permission. No homeless kid has all that. Therefore—no service. [92]

In Father Bruce's opinion, the problem of homeless youth is clearly national in scope. In March, 1980, in testimony before the U.S. Senate, he said:

I am convinced from my examination of the problem of homeless young people as it exists in other major metropolitan areas that it is not specific to New York. It is certainly a problem, for example, in Miami and Ft. Lauderdale, in Los Angeles and San Francisco and Chicago and Boston and Atlanta and here in Washington. [93]

To provide for homeless youths in New York City, Father Bruce usually spends each evening and weekend pleading with private groups, schools and churches to give funds to help these homeless young people. It is, he declares "a race between laryngitis and bankruptcy." [94]

Educational Alliance—Project CONTACT

In 1889, Educational Alliance was founded in response to the needs of immigrants on the Lower East Side in adjusting to a new life in America. In time, the agency expanded its operations to provide comprehensive services to community residents of all ages. By 1968, with the influx of flower children to the East Village, Educational Alliance saw the need for a storefront crash pad where young people could come for food, rest, to clean up and talk to someone about problems. The result was the birth of CONTACT.

With the advent of the seventies, the character of the nomadic population on the streets began to change. As the flower children disappeared, another kind of homeless youth appeared to take their place.

The young people on the streets today have been there much longer than the typical runaway of five years ago. They're much more sophisticated, much angrier street people. Now there's no reason for anyone to come to the East Village except someone escaping from a horrible homelife. So by the time they get down here they're so angry, so frustrated, that when they hit the streets violence is sure to happen. Back then there was a real positive communal feeling. You see little of that now. [95]

With the change in both the population and its needs, CONTACT also modified its services. Now, in addition to the crash pad, it maintains a long-term group home for youngsters referred through the child welfare and juvenile justice systems, a drug rehabilitation facility, and twenty-eight beds for runaways and homeless youth.

A staff review of the circumstances bringing youngsters to the crash pad disclosed:

After a careful analysis of the sample we were impressed by how few cases could be classified as traditional runaway cases—by this we mean cases when the

child can return home, where the problems that precipitated the runaway episode where within the range of turbulent adolescence, which could be resolved through directed family counseling. [96]

A random sampling of client records revealed that only 16 percent of the youngsters could return home and even those who could be reconciled with families, cited emotional abuse by parents, parental alcoholism and threats of physical violence. Additionally, the data showed that 24 percent of the clients had been thrown out of their homes; 8 percent were chronic runaways and had been out in the street for over a year; 10 percent of the youth had no family or resources whatsoever and that 14 percent of the group had intolerable conditions at home and needed to find immediate shelter. However, the highest proportion of the population—28 percent—were youngsters who were AWOL from a group or foster home placement in the child welfare or juvenile justice systems. Cases taken from the sample which fall into this category are:

Female, aged 16: Removed from mother by court due to physical abuse—has been in 16 different foster care residences.

Female, aged 15: Placed in foster care since birth, ran away from group home.

Male, aged 15: Thrown out by mother due to fight between boy and step-father. Placed in group home at age 9—has been in 7 different group homes.

Female, aged 16: Abandoned by father—placed in group home by friend of family.

Female, aged 17: Separated from family at early age—many placements in group homes.

Male, aged 17: Thrown out of group home—has history of many placements.

Female, aged 13: Beaten by mother—placed by court in foster care—ran away from group home.

Female, aged 16: Illegitimate—problems with mother and step-father—placed in group home for last two years.

CONTACT provides shelter, food and emergency clothing to 20 runaways and homeless youth between 13–17 and also operates a group home in which 8 young women over seventeen, can remain six months in an effort to break the cycle of survival through prostitution. Considering the extent of the homeless youth population, twenty-eight beds do not go very far.

Emergency Shelter

The Emergency Shelter was established in 1929, at a period when there were very limited social programs available to transient and homeless adult men in New York. During the Depression, the agency was involved in operating soup kitchens and from that time, the program has focused on the plight of needy men in this City. Although there was early evidence that a large population of young males also inhabit the street, there were few places offering help to young persons over the age of 16 and under 21.

Every year since 1955 substantial numbers of young people from 16–20 years of age have become homeless upon New York City streets. Several thousands of these have come to the attention of the social service agencies each year—with appeals for aid. The experience of the agencies has been that only a fraction of those requiring assistance could be placed in emergency care programs, unless the needy person was a drug abuser, under the jurisdiction of the courts or severely

handicapped. Those who did not fit in these categories were placed in limited or, occasionally unsuitable facilities which were available.[97]

In 1963, the Emergency Shelter began to concentrate solely on provision of services to homeless young men between the ages of 16 through 20. Currently, the program provides alternatives to street life by offering immediate food, housing, counseling, remedial education and job training to 30 young men at one time. The average length of stay is from six to ten weeks. There is strong pressure on youths to secure some kind of employment and upon receipt of his first paycheck, a young man contributes a specified amount to the program for room and board, in order to reinforce his commitment to stay off the streets and engage in legal employment. This is a radical concept for many young people, such as one graduate who previously supported himself by using a toy pistol to stick up elderly gentlemen and their young female companions as they emerged from midtown hotels in the early afternoon. This particular young man eventually eschewed street life to take advantage of Emergency Shelter's remedial education program, entered the City University system and worked to obtain a degree in audio-visual arts. Most of the young men in the program are at "high risk," having few vocational skills and eligible only for entry level jobs with little possibility of a career ladder.

Funding for the Emergency Shelter is at bare minimum level, mostly from private donations. As a consequence:

Requests for admission exceed the Shelter's ability to supply services. Due to lack of room and staff, over 1,000 referrals have been turned away annually. [98]

Declares the Executive Director:

There are thousands out there. We can only take in a ratio of 1 to 3. There is no real interest on the part of the general public. People have more sympathy for older men than they do for youth. [99]

Group-Live-In-Experience (GLIE)

GLIE, a community based program, originated in the Bronx in 1967 for the purpose of advocacy on behalf of the many families living in the largest low income project in the City. The program was established in association with the local Roman Catholic Church and word soon spread throughout the community that GLIE was a safe place to come to. Parents started using the program facilities to discuss their fears of gangs, as well as their fear of their own children. Gang members used the backyard to meet and negotiate with other gangs, trying to work out disagreements through discussion. Other youngsters also used the program as a haven and staff soon noticed that many young people had no place to go after rap sessions were over in the evenings. Soon, GLIE had twelve homeless youths sleeping overnight on the storefront floor. By 1972, in response to the evident need for service, GLIE developed its first group home for adolescents in crisis and in 1975, received its charter as community based child care agency.

For the most part, the majority of homeless youngsters coming to GLIE are Bronx residents. They are local young people who have become detached from parents although the family residence may be located just one block away. Many of the youngsters have taken up residence in communes or cliques in the thousands of abandoned buildings of the South Bronx. Although other cliques, such as the Bikers

or 7 Immortals can be found on the Lower East Side or in Brooklyn, the South Bronx, with its wasteland of empty and decaying buildings, offers many more sites for occupancy. Whereas in the fifties, the gang phenomena existed for fighting purposes and the "rumble" was a common occurrence, present day cliques exist basically as an alternative living style for homeless youngsters.

The gang membership is composed mostly of school drop-outs, truants, unemployed teenagers, and youngsters with police records. The typical member usually does not receive the attention he needs at home from his family, and so to fill this void, he gravitates to the local or neighborhood gang. This gang supplies him with the identity and status he is seeking; and as a result, fierce loyalty among its membership is developed. [100]

Although cliques are impermanent and youngsters drift in and out of membership, in general their lifestyle is based on well defined social structures, each person having his own role, responsibilities and entitlements. Someone will be the parent; someone else the baby. They will even bring in pets. They sleep on mattresses on the floor; their only clothing is what they have on. They get their food from ripping off supermarkets or as handouts from local storekeepers, friends and neighbors who may have known them since birth. Sometimes, a youth will even go back to his original home—when a hated adult is known to be absent—to take a shower, pick up some clothing and food. Often, the youngsters become expert electricians and plumbers, learning how to hook up their buildings to the power and light systems the City has previously turned off. Life in an abandoned building is too hard for anyone to make it on their own but clique members look out for one another, share possessions and call themselves a "family." Although cliques feel they help and protect people in the neighborhood, in fact, they support themselves at the neighborhood's expense, by hustling, robbing, purse snatching, selling drugs and numbers. By the time homeless youth reach GLIE,

They are all "graduates" from bitter backgrounds. They have their credentials. They come from the street. From crumbling tenements, pee-stained hallways, fast dope, street-gang rituals, stink sidewalks, broken homes, lieing teachers, crooked textbooks, slick landlords, abusive cops, rich preachers, junior-high-school-drop-out-hookey-playing party addicts. [101]

GLIE, with its emphasis on community people caring for community youth, has grown from a storefront operation to a program offering three temporary care shelters where thirty adolescents, aged 11–17 can stay from three to eight months; two crash pads where 19 youths remain up to two weeks and a reentry program called Last Stop where 14 youngsters prepare over a year's time, for independent living. In Last Stop, four to six youths reside in an apartment with a counselor who teaches life skills, such as cooking, cleaning, shopping and maintaining the residences. To qualify for Last Stop, a youth must be between 16–17 years old, able to maintain passing grades in school, have a part-time job and defined life goals.

At any given time, with all beds full, GLIE is able to help only 65–70 young people. According to Sister Lorraine Reilly, in the South Bronx alone, there are 75,000 homeless youth.

Hot Line Cares, Inc.

Ten years ago a group of young men in Spanish Harlem, called the Committee for the Weak, was approached by a heroin addict

seeking help. The group was unable to locate a drug treatment program for the young man and he died in front of them, in the street, from an overdose. In response to his death and the obvious need for referral services, Hot Line Cares was started. The program was initiated in conjunction with the Union Settlement Association which provided space and funds. With the budget crisis in New York City and ensuing cutbacks in social programs, Hot Line Cares was forced to vacate its premises and funding ceased. All program staff are unsalaried and the executive director works in a group home at night to support himself so he can keep Hot Line Cares open and operating on weekdays from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m.

Hot Line Cares finds that the major percentage of youngsters calling in for help are of Hispanic background, particularly in cases when there is a conflict between recently arrived Puerto Rican parents and youngsters over customs and traditions.

The deterioration of the close-knit family unit in our society frequently results in the youth feeling alienated by their parents. An additional confusion is added to the Hispanic family where the parents experience a culture shock when they are confronted, with this seemingly "loose" lifestyle, so much different than what they know from their own experiences as youths in Hispanic cultures elsewhere. The consequence is a community in East Harlem of many non-communicating families, resulting in many runaways and/or homeless youth; with our agency being the only service in East Harlem dealing with this specific problem. [102]

Hot Line Cares is basically a telephone crisis intervention and referral agency. Some callers get the help and counseling they need over the phone; others subsequently come into the agency for referral to medical care and shelter. In addition, the program after careful screening, will also place homeless youth aged 14–18 in one of seven temporary safe homes in the community for a period of several weeks. While providers of these voluntary shelters do not receive any financial reimbursement for helping youth, Hot Line Cares pays for youngsters' meals and toiletries.

Faced with a bleak financial picture, staff exudes both determination and desperation as they continue to offer services. Without question, there is a great need for programs in this high risk neighborhood and it must be hoped that the commitment of Hot Line Cares will not falter.

Independence House

In 1970, Independence House was founded to provide a short-term halfway house for male offenders aged 16–21 who had been in prison and were in process of release into the community. By 1972, the program began to see many homeless youth among its ex-offenders and since that time, most of its young men are in the homeless group category, whether they are referred via the correctional system or local community agencies.

For the 16–21 age group, there is a great need for residential services, which can offer immediate food and shelter, meet health and job needs and help prepare youths for independent living. There are uncounted thousands of these youths in New York City, with no stable home or legitimate means of support, who wander the streets, hustling or stealing to survive. With public funding focused on the age 16-and-under category, only a handful of programs serve the 16–21 year olds. [103]

The homeless young men who come to Independence House are generally a mixed population. The Executive Director feels that some

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have tried the 42nd Street scene but are turned off by it, uncomfortable with prostitution. Other youths are long-time street people without stable homes, who live one day with a cousin, the next day with a friend and drift endlessly from one insecure situation to another. Too, there are systems youngsters from foster care and group homes who have become so dependent on institutional structures that they are unable to assume quasi-independent roles.

Some of these youths have been arrested for stealing and others are prime candidates for getting into trouble. They don't want to join the growing ranks of lifelong dangerous dependents and Independence House represents their commitment to struggle into productive adulthood. Not every Tom, Dick and Harry needs Independence House but these three did: *Tom*, 17, was put in the street by his parents, worked and attended school during one month at Independence House, and continued his progress after arranging to live with his aunt. *Dick*, 19, came to Independence House for three months in lieu of detention at Rikers Island, worked, saved over $400 and received probation from the court. *Harry*, 21, served one year in Elmira for robbery, became functionally literate during two months at Independence House, and now works as super of the building where he lives. [104]

Independence House is prepared to meet the immediate needs of thirty youths. It provides food, shelter, recreation, counseling and educational and vocational help over an average period of two weeks. There is a very strong emphasis placed on employment, of any kind and at any level, from the most menial task to handling out leaflets in the streets.

Formerly, Independence House received all its funding from the criminal justice system. However, when its three-year demonstration grant ended, the program was stranded without much support. The program makes a tremendous effort to raise private monies but this is a tenuous solution, making it extraordinarily difficult to operate within a secure and relaxed program environment.

The Door—A Center of Alternatives

In 1970, a group of twelve young professionals in the fields of medicine, psychiatry, law, education, social work and the arts met to discuss their common concern about the paucity and direction of health and mental health facilities available to adolescents. They were deeply concerned that the critical needs of youngsters were not being met by traditional service delivery systems and that the youngsters most in need of help would, therefore, not seek out assistance. Subsequently, other professionals were drawn in by the initial group and task forces set up to look at the content and approach to programs to be provided in areas of health, mental health, drug abuse, venereal disease, sex and family planning, nutrition, social services, education, vocations, law and creative arts. By 1972, having developed its service framework and obtained physical space, The Door began operations. Since that time, The Door has offered free services and alternatives to troubled and needy young people, aged 12–21.

A visit to The Door is like a fantasy; an exciting melange of primary colors, free flowing spaces, music and huge pots of plants; a place where youth can choose from a seemingly unlimited list of activities. There is a constantly moving kalaidoscope of youngsters; meeting in a large circle for drug abuse counseling; scurrying off to get advice in the job center; weaving panther-like in deep concentration in a martial arts class. There are swarms of young people, 400–425 per day; some

sitting, waiting for pre-natal counseling and complete physical examinations; some hurrying to the dining room for the free evening meal and others setting off to participate in a dance or theatre workshop. Everyone has a schedule and planned activity; there is no "hanging out" at The Door.

The heart of The Door is the S.O.S. Service. It provides social crisis intervention to desperate youngsters needing emergency shelter, food and clothing. It is here that homeless youth first come, noping to find an alternative to sleeping in cold hallways or on bus terminal benches. According to Julie Glover, Director of S.O.S., many different types of youngsters need this kind of help. There are young people from disintegrated and non-functional families, where parents do not serve as a support system because they themselves do not have any life skills to pass along to their children. There are youngsters who have been thrown out of the home because they are pregnant, stay out too late or use drugs. There are walkaways, who walk out because they cannot get along with their mother's boyfriend. There are young people who have organic or educational impairments or mental illnesses which the family finds too frustrating to handle. There are youngsters from institutions who have had

no appropriate family systems, little after-care, no skills in decision making and are tremendously dependent. They are discharged by institutions to the street or to programs that no longer exist. The youngster never understands what is planned for him and many times the agency discharge plan is in fact, inappropriate. [105]

A brief report on S.O.S. and homeless young people states that:

Most (more than 80 percent) of the young people who come to S.O.S. have experienced difficulties in their relationship with their families to the point where either the young persons, the parents, or both feel that, for the time being at least, it is not advisable for the young person to return or continue to live at home. More than half (62 percent) of the young people seen in S.O.S. feel that it is not advisable or possible to live with their families; this figure is particularly notable when one considers that 57 percent of these young people are age 18 or under. [106]

In the 14-month period, August 1975–September 1976, S.O.S. identified 507 youngsters who were homeless and looking for emergency places to stay. The data shows that

381 of these young people were placed for at least one night in a residence, 28 young people returned home to their families, 38 young people found emergency shelter with friends, 3 decided to leave the City that night and 57 young people "returned to the street," 34 of them because The Door was unable to find them any kind of emergency residence facility and 23 because they were unwilling to accept the emergency residential placement that The Door recommended. (In many cases, the only resources the S.O.S. staff were able to locate on an emergency basis were Bowery missions or drug programs, both of which might be inappropriate to the young person's needs.) [107]

In fact, the extreme scarcity of available shelter results

in the referral of many young people to public facilities such as transportation terminals, hospital waiting rooms and city sponsored shelters "for those with no heat in their homes." [108]

As far back as 1973, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare identified The Door as a model program and began to present it as such at national conferences. Since then, The Door has won international recognition from the governments of Argentina, Mexico and

Venezuela and has been visited by thousands of professionals interested in seeing this innovative center. In fact,

When Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, Joseph Califano, was developing policy recommendations on teenage pregnancy, an H.E.W. task force was especially impressed with representatives of The Door and their ideas on meeting the needs of hard-to-reach adolescents. [109]

With all this public recognition and demonstrated effectiveness of service, one might surmise that funding for The Door is readily available. In fact, it is not. Although the agency has put together a patchwork of categorical grants from Federal, State and local sources, its funding is actually precarious.

"The funding situation is disastrous," reported The Door's director, Dr. James Turanski, who goes around muttering over the $300,000 educational and vocational grant the center lost in December and the $200,000 health and manpower training one expiring next summer, and wondering which services to cut . . . "We are in a state of continual financial crisis." [110]

The Door, a national model program, serving thousands of youngsters each year, faces on-going funding insecurity and the continued lack of places to refer homeless youth. Surely, The Door needs better options than the Newark Airport Lounge where it sends youngsters to sleep in winter because it is heated and there are no pimps.

Runaway Youth Coordinating Council (R.Y.C.C.)

The Runaway Youth Coordinating Council is located in Nassau County, Long Island, home of many middle class families. In the early 1970's, local social service agencies began to receive calls from youngsters asking for help. Many of these young people had been having family difficulties during the pre-adolescent period but when adolescence became full-blown, they either ran away or were eventually thrown out of the home. In 1976, R.Y.C.C. was established to meet the needs of these youngsters.

One of the major causes of family difficulties in Nassau County springs from the economic pressure of rising property taxes and the attendant necessity for both parents to work to support the family lifestyle. As a result of increased financial stress, youngsters in conflict over parental culture and language are being told to leave communities densely populated by Italian and Jewish families. Numerous other youths are being forced out because of substantial parental alcohol, physical and sexual abuse.

Before coming to R.Y.C.C. for help, many of the young people are able to negotiate on their own for several weeks by hiding out in large homes of friends where youngsters can remain unnoticed. However, upon eventual discovery, the friend's parents, fearing legal action, usually turn the youth out.

During the first eighteen months of operation, R.Y.C.C. reported the following demographic data on the 294 youths it had housed: [111]

Ethnicity (percent):	
White	81
Black	14
Hispanic	4
Other	1
Sex:	
Male	129
Female	165

Age (percent):	
16 to 18	80
12 to 15	20
Distance run from home (percent):	
Under 10 miles	60
Over 10 miles	40
Living situations of youth requesting service (percent):	
Pushed out of home	27
Left by mutual agreement of parent and youth	20
Came to program from living situation other than original home	23
Away from home without parental consent	30
Disposition (percent):	
Went in a variety of directions (relatives, friends, independent living) not necessarily by choice but out of necessity	28
Chose to live on their own	19
Went to foster care	15
Returned to their parents	38

In testimony, dated October 17, 1977, before the New York Senate Standing Committee on Social Services and the Assembly Standing Committee on Child Care, Pat Walsh Bambino, Executive Director of R.Y.C.C., stated:

> The United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare defines the runaway episode as "an incident in which a youth under 18 years of age absents himself or herself from his or her home or legal residence without the permission of his or her parents or legal guardian." Our response to this in the past involved developing individually oriented services in order to help youth cope with his/her internal crisis. Our experiences have not found this to be a completely accurate interpretation or response. Many of the young people whom we service ran away in response to either being pushed out of their family or in response to family stress they cannot cope with, including physical and sexual abuse. Of the 294 youths serviced, 33 percent were away from home without parental permission; but 43 percent were either pushed out, ejected from the home, or away by mutual agreement of parents and youth. And 80 percent were over the age of 16 years. [112]

Sanctuary

In 1972, the Sanctuary program evolved as an informal response to the needs of other community agencies in Suffolk County, Long Island, which saw an increase in the number of runaway youth in the area. With the allocation of funds through the Runaway Youth Act, Sanctuary was formally established and became one of five model programs in the Nation for its effectiveness in providing aftercare service for runaway youth.

Suffolk County, ninety percent suburban, is composed of a middle and upper class population living in one family homes, and on large estates in the affluent residential pockets of Dix Hills and Huntington. Here too, there are economic pressures related to rising real estate taxes, and a notably high incidence of parental alcohol abuse. A large number of Dix Hills youths also report parental incest.

It is unusual for a youngster in this area to try and make it on his own by living in an abandoned gasoline station; for these suburban youths it is common to live for a while in a friend's garage. With an abundance of food in the home and lack of supervision by parents, it is quite easy for a youngster to be hidden, sheltered and fed. When the young person is finally discovered and being desperate, comes to Sanctuary, he sizes up his basic problem this way. "I'm really healthy. My home situation is making me ill." [113]

Sanctuary maintains a coordinated network with other social service agencies to try and get assistance for young people and also places youngsters in thirty private homes made available on a temporary basis by members of the community. However, after the temporary period is over, Sanctuary is finding it increasingly difficult to return youths to their homes and has had to change its initial program goals. Originally, Sanctuary had planned on the reconciliation of at least 60 percent of the youngsters with their families. The program has subsequently concluded that at optimum, only 47 percent of the youths could possibly be returned home. Even this figure presents the staff with severe problems because of the rise in adolescent suicides which are occurring as youngsters are sent back to their families. Sandy Booth, Coordinator of Sanctuary states, "I'm totally depressed. Here we are, picked as one of HEW's top aftercare programs, but we can't do much." [114]

In conclusion, although these programs differ in tradition, scope and service, all face common problems. First, there is a very real shortage of emergency or permanent shelter available to homeless youths. Programs can offer only limited bed space and when their own facilities are full, staff have few alternatives for help. Programs usually call one another, pleading for shelter for another young person and they are all usually in violation of some State or City licensing or health code. Nevertheless, programs do in fact put youngsters on the floor, couches and mattresses, rather than turn them back to the streets.

A second problem concerns the length of time a young person is able to remain in a program. Because of Federal regulations, youth are only supposed to stay in shelters for several weeks. While this does give youth some breathing space and head rest, almost all energy is devoted to working out the next shelter arrangement, the next step in a hand-to-mouth existence. Youth do not have a secure period during which they can assess their long-term goals and make positive and constructive decisions for their future. Faced by the continual insecurity of looking for next week's bed and tomorrow's food, young people do not have the opportunity to get themselves together. Programs too, find the guidelines difficult to manage. Says Under 21:

> The two week residence requirement we think is unrealistic. We frequently find it necessary to keep a young person with us one month, two months, even three months before we can help them solve their problem. [115]

Although the years between sixteen and twenty are a period when society expects many young people to formulate life decisions, homeless youth are deprived of this natural growth process because they are so totally lacking in other supports.

Thirdly, programs find that in general, traditional social service systems are unresponsive to youth. Alternative program personnel consider themselves as adversaries with agencies and as advocates for youth who do not possess the skill, sophistication or patience to unravel bureaucratic webs and force the systems to respond. Programs call welfare centers daily, finally initiating legal actions against the Department of Social Services in cases where the public agency has refused to give public assistance funds to an eligible youngster. Staff stretch facts of age, residency and emotional problems in order to get youths into child welfare programs. Particularly frustrating in crisis

centers is the inability to reach Child Protective Services personnel—often, child abuse hotlines go unanswered.

Finally, many of the alternative programs suffer from grave financial instability. Funding for homeless youth is limited and comes predominantly from the Runaway Youth Act. Programs often admit youngsters, knowing fully well they will never be reimbursed and must further stretch their overextended budgets. A basic fear of almost all staff is that their funds will evaporate and they will have to close their doors—leaving homeless youngsters without any positive options at all.

DATA ANALYSIS

In order to obtain a comprehensive picture of homeless young people, eighteen interviews were conducted with officials of New York State and City, as well as with representatives of the voluntary agencies and alternative programs. Everyone was very cooperative in completing the Interview Form although it was usually asserted most information was based on front-line impressions, opinions and feelings rather than hard data. In general, it was fairly simple to get estimates and some consensus about age, ethnicity, place of origin, living situation prior to program contact, parental lifestyle, educational performance level, medical and legal problems and youths' prior counseling. However, there was no general agreement on the size of the homeless youth population. While programs are able to indicate the numbers of youngsters they serve and those they must turn back to the street for lack of space, there is no present method developed to accurately determine the hidden youth who remain unknown to the service network and do not approach programs for assistance. The persons interviewed estimated that the number of homeless young people ranges from 10,000–200,000 at one time (static) and 10,000–400,000 throughout one year (dynamic).

Using the Bureau of Census figures to put the youth population in perspective, the 1970 figures show there were 734,235 youths, aged 13 to 17 living in New York City. [116] Projections made by the foster care system of the current number of youths aged 12–18 indicate a probable population of 688,200 in 1980 and 678,800 in 1985. [117] However, there is no reliable way to predict what percent of these young people will be forced out of their homes and join the ranks of homeless youth.

At the conclusion of the interviews, the New York programs were also asked to comment on changes they have seen in the homeless youth population. These impressions and findings are strikingly similar to those mentioned by programs nationwide.

Approximate number of homeless youth contacting agency in one year:

The nature of response to this question depended largely on type of agency asked and systems replied they saw only as many youths as they could handle. This answer should not imply there are not more homeless youths needing help, merely that referrals to these agencies are made on the basis of bed space available and when the facilities are full, intake ceases.

The alternative programs estimated they served from 200 to 10,000 homeless youths in one year. While one program noted it can assist

only one out of every four youths coming for assistance, two other programs state they can provide service to only one out of every five youths turning the remainder back to the streets. Three programs indicate they do not turn anyone away and house young people illegally, rather than reject them. Staff in two programs take youngsters home with them, when necessary.

Percentage of males and females

Of 18 interview forms, 15 were completed; 3 programs do not serve females.

Breakout by sex	Number of programs
Majority of population served:	
60 to 80 percent male	11
60 percent female	4

Eleven programs see more males than females. This does not necessarily mean there are more homeless males than females, but that more males are coming to these programs for services. Of the four programs which serve more females than males, one program caters predominantly to Hispanic youth, one program has a reputation for having bed spaces available for females and the two remaining programs are located in the suburbs.

Average age of males and females:

Eighteen interview forms were completed for males.

Average age of males served (in years):	Number of programs
18	8
17	3
16	4
15	1
14	1
13	1

Fifteen interview forms were completed for females; 3 programs do not serve females.

Average age of females served (in years):	Number of programs
18	5
17	2
16	4
15	2
14	1
13	1

Responses concerning the average age of youths served was skewed because some agencies only care for youngsters until they reach 13, while other agencies do not admit young people until after they have reached their 16th birthday. Taking this bias into account, the majority of programs indicate the average age of males between 16–18. In contrast, the average age of females appears to be somewhat younger (notwithstanding the fact there are 3 fewer forms available).

Closer analysis shows that 11 programs note the average age of males to be 17–18; 5 programs indicate the primary age as 15–16. The data on females indicates only 7 programs find the average age to be 17–18 and six programs assess the average age as 15–16. There were no specific reasons given to explain the cause of the average age differential.

Ethnicity

Of 18 interview forms, 15 were completed; 3 programs had no data.

Ethnic breakout

Majority of population served:	Number of programs
40 to 80 percent Black	10
55 percent Hispanic	2
60 to 90 percent White	3

As expected, the agencies serving a high concentration of black youngsters are the correctional and juvenile justice systems composed primarily of minority youths. Two programs reporting a high percentage of Hispanic youths are physically situated in Hispanic communities in the South Bronx and in East Harlem. Two of the programs reporting most of the youth they serve are white and are located in suburban areas.

The percentage of Hispanic and white population in different programs is related to geographical locations. However, there is a high city-wide incidence of black youth served and concentrated mainly in the systems.

Place of origin

Of 18 interview forms, 16 were completed.

Place of origin

Population:	Number of programs
100 percent local	6
90 percent local	6
75 percent local	3
60 percent local	1

The majority of youths served are local young people. However, other youngsters needing service come from the Midwest, East Coast, Puerto Rico, Haiti, Guatemala, Santo Domingo and the Virgin Islands. In some of these latter instances, families send youths to New York to stay with relatives or friends. Upon arrival, youths often discover the planned living situations are inappropriate and find themselves stranded without other personal resources or financial support.

Living situation prior to program contact

Of 18 interview forms, 5 were not completed.

Living situation:	Number of programs
Coming from original home	4
Coming from mixed sources	8
Coming from community support network	1

This question proved confusing to staff because New York City youth do not usually leave home and come directly to programs for assistance. Instead, youngsters experiment with a number of alternative situations; staying with sympathetic relatives, friends, in parks, empty houses, and then beginning the process again. There is continual drifting from one living situation to another based on changing needs, as well as willingness of someone to provide shelter without making demands the youth cannot accept.

Youth coming from other systems

Of the 12 interview forms completed, agencies indicated the following proportions were AWOL from foster homes, group homes detention, hospitals and mental health facilities:

Youths coming from other systems (percent):	Number of programs
10	3
20	3
30	3
40	1
50	1
60	1

According to the data, six programs feel that from 20–35 percent of homeless youths are coming out of placement in the systems.

Comments about the foster-care system include:

At least 5%–18% of the youths are AWOL every day. They come back, in and out.

These are children of the state—they have run through the whole field of placement.

These kids are discharged by the child care system at 16½ although the system is responsible until 18.

The greatest number that leave do so from the voluntary placement agencies because these programs did not alter their staff or training when they began to take in PINS and JDs for more money.

The child welfare system won't touch youngsters 16 and up, nor will they take the kid back if he leaves. They try to dump the older kid because of their behavior problems and refer them out of the child care system.

Parental living style

Of 18 interview forms, 17 were completed; 1 agency did not collect this data.

Parents	Number of programs
Youths living with single parent (and possible "friend") (45 to 95 pct)	15
Youths living with original parents (35 to 40 pct)	1
Youths living with original and stepparent (30 to 60 pct)	1

The vast majority of homeless youth come from single parent or recombined households. Many families are composed of multi-fathers, "uncles," boyfriends and girlfriends. It is impossible to discern whether these "friends" play parenting roles for youth or are only in the house to meet needs of the mother or father. The suburban programs indicated the majority of their youth come from intact homes of two original parents or parent and step-parent by remarriage.

Educational performance level of youths

Of 18 interview forms, 12 indicated a specific performance level figure; 6 programs gave no estimate, but reported the level is severely deficient.

Education performance, grade level:	Number of programs
8	4
7	1
6	1
5	2
4	2
3	2

Analysis of the data shows that half the programs estimate educational performance level at 7–8 grade and the other half assess performance at 3–5 grade. In both cases, the average chronological age of youths is at least 15 years of age.

Percentage of youth with medical problems—major types

Of 18 interview forms, 17 were completed; 1 agency could not estimate the nature or incidence of medical problems.

Youths having medical problems (percent):	Number of problems
100	7
90	1
80	2
60	2
50	3
5	1

With one exception, programs indicate that 50–100 percent of the homeless need medical care. The most commonly mentioned problems are:

Type of health problem:	Ranked by most common
Venereal disease	11
Dental	10
Malnutrition	5
Pregnancy	3
Vision	3
Sickle cell anemia	2
Drug abuse	2
Alcohol abuse	1

The medical problems surely reflect conditions encountered in a precarious street life. Problems of alcohol and drug abuse were indicated by a suburban program.

Percentage of youth with legal problems—major types

Of 18 interview forms, 16 were completed; 2 agencies did not have involvement with youths' legal problems.

Youths having legal problems (percent):	Number of programs
100	3
90	1
80	2
50	2
40	1
30	2
20	4
5	1

Corrections and juvenile justice systems account for youths having 100 percent involvement with the law; other agencies report youths' legal difficulties as shoplifting, PINS petitions, breaking and entering and jumping over subway turnstiles to avoid payment of fares. There was no indication homeless youths are involved in serious crimes or are part of the violent offender population.

Percentage of youths having had prior counseling

Of 18 interview forms, 16 were completed; 2 agencies indicated they have no access to data.

Youths having had prior counseling (percent):	Number of programs
100	4
80	4
50	5
20	1
10	2

Most of the youths have received counseling from schools, probation officers, mental health clinics, during prior program placements and in using other social services. Included are some comments on the effectiveness of counseling.

They've had every kind of counseling. We get them at the end of the line.

They've been brainwashed and nothing happened. They are severely emotionally deprived and their needs are massive.

All the systems played the hot potato game and passed the kid along. No one had any intention of remedying the problem.

Counseling has had no impact on the problem. They've been through the service mill and it hasn't met their needs.

Estimated number of homeless youth city-wide

Sixteen programs (excluding the two agencies on Long Island) were asked to respond; 9 estimates were made; 7 programs could not estimate a total number.

Total homeless youth in NYC (static) (in thousands):	*Number of programs*
200,000	1
100,000	2
75,000	2
20,000	3
10,000	1

Two programs asked to qualify their figures. In one case a program thought the static capacity is 20,000, but the dynamic capacity is actually 100,000. Likewise an additional program stated the static capacity is 75,000 at any one time but the yearly dynamic capacity is actually closer to 400,000.

Total homeless youth in NYC (dynamic) (in thousands):	*Number of programs*
400,000	1
200,000	2
100,000	3
20,000	2
10,000	1

A summary of data reveals:

More homeless males than females come into social service programs.

Average age of homeless males is 17–18; homeless females are likely to be younger, 15–16.

Ethnicity of homeless youth corresponds to geographical location; in New York City, the population is predominantly black; in suburbs, it is mainly white.

Most homeless youth are local young people and come from nearby communities.

Homeless youth use various techniques to survive; many youths come for help after contact with other systems.

Homeless youth in New York City are usually from single parent or recombined families; in suburbia, they come from families with two parents.

Educational performance level of homeless youth ranges from third to eighth grades.

Over 50 percent of the homeless youth have medical problems.

The majority of homeless youth have had some type of counseling.

Estimates of the static population of homeless youth range from 10,000–200,000, with the most weight given to the 75,000–200,000 range.

Estimates of the annual dynamic population of homeless youth range from 10,000–400,000 with the most weight given to the 100,000–200,000 range.

Following are several comments and observations about homeless youth by program staff:

Youngsters are more desperate because we can't place them out of their homes. They haven't slept anywhere. We find them in our lobby in the morning and had to start a breakfast program to feed them. There is more chronic alcoholism, drugs and incest.

There are more homeless youth and a dearth of residences. They are older adolescents and they are more disturbed, potentially violent and have a sense of hopelessness.

Adolescents are getting harder to deal with. They are getting desperate although they will still accept direction from an authority figure.

We know there's an increase of the numbers of homeless youth outside although our own population remains stable due to limited bed space.

They are more violent and disturbed; they have more critical needs. There's a lot of scapegoating of children.

There is a more serious educational problem; it is more difficult to find jobs: more kids are being arrested and sent up.

The youths are more visible, frightened and nervous. They know we can't offer education.

The homeless is a lost population. There are more single parents now and more families are collapsing.

There are more younger street kids now. The number of homeless is increasing and the demand for bed space has gone up.

There are no resources to offer them; the government has nothing to give but promises; the youth are younger, more hostile, more depressed.

There are more hardcore homeless, those who drop through the bureaucratic cracks have more problems. There's more deterioration of housing and services; less willingness to believe that anyone wants help.

There's an increase in numbers and in superficial survivability in the street. The reproduction rate has grown and they are breeding more.

Suicide is our largest youth problem. The family situation is getting worse and family members are beating on one another as a way of coping. There's more alcohol and physical abuse and we see the younger children warming up, next in line. There are less coping mechanisms for kids now. The schools are dead, the kids aren't into themselves or anything else.

The kids are sick and the families are sicker. It's going to be worse because fewer can get back to their homes. There's an attitude of hopelessness and our recidivism rate is very high.

We should be in prevention, but we aren't doing it. There's an attitude that if children can be seen and not heard we'll be safe.

There are fewer resources, fewer residences. Society's attitude is becoming more punitive towards the poor. Society doesn't want to give anything to youth. There's a feeling that adolescents should not be taken care of. Adults are afraid of youth. Youth have no voice, no clout.

Youth is much less trusting, they are cool on the outside but a mess on the inside. They think they are no good and they are all the more acting out with not much control inside to stop them.

Delinquency has become more serious in the last 30 years; we have more serious youthful crimes. Youngsters can no longer exist with the emotional pain of their families and they have to leave. We need overall counseling—where the total family is brought in.

CASE RECORDS AND INTERVIEWS

In order to enhance perspective, understanding and bring freshness and immediacy to the homeless youth problem, it was imperative to talk directly with young people about their situation and hear their feelings about life without families, survival techniques used in meeting immediate needs and their long-range hopes and expectations. It was also important to note similarities and differences between suburban and urban youngsters who had been forced to leave, to find out what reasons they gave for their homeless condition and to try and discover something about their family situation

Clients of the Runaway Youth Coordinating Council could not be personally interviewed because they are not centrally located but placed in "safe" houses scattered throughout suburban Nassau County. However, discussion with R.Y.C.C. program staff and two youth members of its Advisory Council disclosed that homeless young people are coming from families which

> expect the young person to get a high school diploma and go to college; to find a professional job; to have a two-car garage and to out do their parents a little. However, many of the parents do not have the time to sit down and talk with their youngsters. Both parents work full time and are in and out of the house. Or, the parents may be divorced and the mother may realize she can't handle the adolescent by herself when she still has younger children at home. She won't want the younger kids to be influenced by the older. He may be thrown out for smoking pot or because of his choice of friends. [118]

Suburban youngsters have few resources open to them for shelter and employment. At first, they explore their network of relationships with friends and then, "hang out" in shopping centers and malls in hopes of finding someone who will provide them with a place to sleep. Employment is difficult to obtain and sustain due in part to the problems of daily transportation to and from work. In fact, selling marijuana is a common alternative to sleeping by the side of highways and working in fast food operations. In contrast to urban survival techniques, homosexuality, prostitution and gang membership are not seen as viable options and "there is little mugging because the income area is too high." [119]

Homeless youth in the suburbs come from predominantly middle-class families. Family size is relatively small and there are proportionately more households with two parents, whether original or recombined. Few youngsters are involved with the court or child welfare systems and many homeless youngsters continue to attend school.

The following brief sketches illustrate reasons suburban youngsters are forced out of their home and describe something about the background of their families.

Susie, aged 16, one of three children. Mother works in an office; father is a factory machinist. Parents separated three years ago; Susie lived first with mother but they fought. Moved in with father and was forced out by his girlfriend. *Current situation*—independent living.

Laurie, aged 18, one of three children. Mother is a homemaker; step-father is a truck driver. Parents have been married 10 years. Mother threw Laurie out when she discovered incestuous relationship with step-father. *Current situation*—living with boyfriend; dropped out of college.

Eddy, aged 16, one of four children but only youngster with different father. Parents are separated; mother works in an office. She locked Eddy out of the home for "misbehaving." High school dropout. *Current situation*—placed in group home.

Valerie, aged 16, was in foster care and then lived with her aunt who threw her out because she did not abide by house rules, curfews. High school dropout. *Current situation*—trying to get public assistance to live independently.

Vincent, aged 17, one of three children. Father manages a small trucking firm; mother is a homemaker. Father is an alcoholic, physically abusive and when drunk, throws Vincent out. High school dropout. *Current situation*—returned to home and awaiting father's next attack on him.

Robert, aged 17, one of two children at home. Mother is a home maker; father manages a store. Parents have sworn out an order of protection to keep him out of the house due to his physical attacks on them. Has a high school equivalency diploma. *Current situation*—looking for placement in a group home.

Donald, aged 19, only child, adopted at birth by very religious couple. Father is a business manager; mother is a homemaker. Parents told him to leave because he did not save enough of the money he earned from his part-time job. Has a high school diploma. *Current situation*—independent living.

Pat, aged 16, one of four original siblings. Mother is deceased; father, retired, married to a woman with three teenage daughters. Rejected by father and step-mother and forced out of home. Attends high school. *Current situation*—living with sister while suing father for non-support.

Linda, aged 17, one of three children. Mother is a clerk; father is an engineer. When she came home from her job after school, mother locked her out and said she doesn't want her at home any longer. Attends high school. *Current situation*—living with a friend and friend's parents.

Susan, aged 16, one of four children. Mother is a saleswoman; step-father is employed in a restaurant. Step-father beats mother and youngsters. Susan was thrown out after having had a physical fight with her mother. Attends high school and has two part-time jobs. *Current situation*—Child Protective Services returned her to the home.

Tom, aged 16, one of five children. Mother is deceased; father, who owns a gas station, is remarried. Step-mother does not like Tom and forced him out. High school dropout. *Current situation*—unknown.

Susan, aged 16, one of five children. Father is a truck driver; mother is a homemaker. Parents felt financially burdened and forced her to leave. Attends high school. *Current situation*—placed in foster care.

Shamus, aged 17, one of three children. Father is the manager of an A&P; mother is a homemaker. Both parents drink heavily but told him to leave because he didn't follow house rules concerning beer. Attends high school. *Current situation*—independent living.

Tim, aged 17, one of two children. Mother is a homemaker, told him to leave and live with older brother. Brother, who was newly married, did not want this responsibility. Attending high school. *Current situation*—placed in group home.

Jeff, aged 19, one of four children. Parents are divorced. Father is a cook and an alcoholic. Mother threw Jeff out because she did not want to care for him. Dropped out of high school. *Current situation*—living in a religious commune.

Diane, aged 17, one of four children. Father unknown; mother, a homemaker. Thrown out by mother when Diane became pregnant. Attending high school. *Current situation*—taken back by mother after she had a miscarriage.

Mary, aged 17, one of six children. Father is an engineer with NBC; mother is a secretary. Thrown out by father when he found marijuana rolling papers in her room. Attending high school. *Current situation*—staying with friends.

Sheera, aged 17, lives with two original siblings and two step-siblings. Father is a district school superintendent; step-mother is a

secretary. Father threw Sheera out when she became pregnant. Dropped out of high school. *Current situation*—unknown.

William, aged 16, only child. Father is a carpenter; mother is a homemaker. Although attending school and working part-time, he began truanting. Parents threw him out. Attending school. *Current situation*—placed in a group home.

Preston, aged 18, only youngster at home. Father is a mechanic; mother is a nurse's aide. Parents are separated. Mother threw him out because he did not obey house rules. Attends high school. *Current situation*—placed in a group home.

Interviews with homeless youth at The Door—A Center of Alternatives, depicted some of their personal circumstances, as well as the way they viewed their current and future existence. Almost everyone who was asked to be interviewed wanted to participate. A few youths expressed hesitation to discuss what they needed to do to survive on the streets and they were not interviewed. One angry young man cancelled his interview appointment when he found he'd been fired from his job and was too upset to discuss this situation.

Some of the youths who were interviewed, were in immediate crisis, having no money or shelter for the night. Other young people were in acute crisis situations; having again been fired from jobs and owing back rent. Although these youth may well have experienced the same events before, repetition and familiarity did not make their situations any less painful. Another group of youth who were interviewed, were in just slightly less desperate straits. They were precariously employed, had short-term residential options and were using the services of The Door to strengthen and support their abilities to live on their own. A final group, of slightly older people, had been homeless at a prior time, managed to find steady employment, occupied their own apartments for a year or more and remained involved with The Door by volunteering to run workshops. With the exception of this last group, the life status of homeless youth constantly changes—a young person holding down a job one day is often back in the street again by the following week. The only constants of homeless youth are impermanence, anxiety, acute and chronic crisis.

Interviews with clients at The Door revealed a horrifying picture of depression and despair. Young people wanted desperately to improve their life options but found few resources or choices available. Many youths supported themselves sporadically by menial off-the-books employment, without any realistic chance for improvement. In other cases, when employment was unavailable, youths were forced to turn to illegal and degrading techniques in order to survive: selling drugs, gang membership, homosexuality and prostitution. They were exploited, vulnerable and used. As stated by Father Bruce Ritter:

> They are not bad kids. It is wrong to think that they are bad kids. They are good kids whose only crime is, for the most part, to be cold, hungry and homeless with no skills, no resources, cut off from jobs or the possibility of getting medical help or public assistance. Since they have nothing to sell except themselves, they are easily victimized by the so-called victimless crime of prostitution. From our experience, there are many hundreds of kids caught up in a vicious degrading life style that kills many of them. They are caught in a kind of quicksand and cannot easily escape. [120]

In addition to the degradation and constant anxiety experienced by most homeless youth, other general trends emerged from the inter-

views. Many of the young people came from very large families; many had never known their fathers; many youngsters did not know the whereabouts of brothers or sisters. Family life had little cohesion and numerous families were totally dysfunctional. Over one third of the youths had been placed in a series of institutions by the court and child welfare systems, reflecting the serious breakdown of familial relationships.

Karen, aged 22, considers herself homeless since 17 when her adopted mother, who had been beating her since age 5, forced her to leave. She survived by working as a cashier, and lived with various men, until she became pregnant, at which time the baby's father put her out. Karen went to a maternity home where she had her child and also got her high school equivalency diploma.

I'm an insecure person and I know what it stems from. I need to learn to be more secure about myself and to like myself a little bit more. I've felt suicidal since I was eight years old because I felt nothing could be worse than living the way I did as a youngster. The people in Washington should know that young people don't know whether to hurry up and grow up or still be little. There are eleven year old girls who are pregnant. They can't put it together. Very few girls in the maternity home come from a family situation; most of them have been institutionalized. Many young women come from families with five kids, without education and on welfare. Guys from institutions don't know how to act either—only as little boys, abusive, or homosexuals. I don't see how they can have input into running this country when they don't even have input for themselves. We must have centers for people in situations that are intolerable and they must have jobs.

Current situation—supported by welfare, living with her infant son.

Jose, aged 19, considers himself homeless since 17 when his family sent him to New York from Puerto Rico to stay with a friend. He survived by working at menial jobs, selling marijuana and homosexuality. He has a high school diploma.

I didn't know what it would be like when I left home. I needed more education about myself and how to be independent. The people in Washington should know that there are not enough shelters or centers for youth and we need more information about them.

Current situation—was hit by a car while working as a messenger. Has no workman's compensation and is trying to get on welfare. Landlord is taking him to court for non-payment of rent.

Henry, aged 20, considers himself homeless since 13 when he came to the U.S. from Biafra. He has no identification papers and cannot get a job; his education is negligible. He survives by prostituting himself with older women.

Being on my own is a surprise. There's not really anything I like about it. The people in Washington should know that I need papers to become a citizen. I'm not comfortable here. I feel excluded. I keep going from one shelter to the other. They don't have any vacancies and they don't want me. I don't know where to go.

Current situation—sleeps on couch in apartment occupied by two couples who have asked him to leave.

Joyce, aged 19, considers herself homeless since 16. One of six children, she was institutionalized by her mother from birth to seven and from the age of fourteen on after her step-father tried to "get fresh" with her. She survived by living in group homes and drug programs (although she had no drug abuse problem) and now stays with friends in return for sex. She has completed the eleventh grade.

I can't honestly say I like living on my own—I'm still scared inside. There's so much insecurity. I don't know what will happen next month. Sometimes I get so depressed. I want to make things right but I'm so discouraged. I would like to have a receptionist job, to forget welfare and be a citizen. I want to come home from work and have a nice home—something to fall back on. People in Washington should know we need more group homes for specific ages so not all people are thrown in together. We have different problems at different ages. People shouldn't be referred to institutions just because there's space, like sending teenagers with family problems to drug programs. I've seen kids placed where they didn't want to go but that's all that's available. People are placed where they won't be acceptable to the agency. Life has been really hard.

Current situation—streets.

Robert, aged 23, considers himself homeless since 13 although not forced out of the home until 17 by parents who did not want to support him. One of eight children, his mother beat him and his father was an alcoholic. Survived by sleeping in hallways and parks, staying with relatives and off-the-books employments in stores and factories. Has high school diploma.

There was no one to relate to in the streets. I was very shy and couldn't deal with people. I was used by people. The loneliness is a very depressing scene. I didn't know I had a future. The people in Washington should know that it's not hopeless. There is a way of changing the situation with young people. We need a hotline, a center that can tell someone what's available for shelter, maybe with a small youth patrol that can come and get the person. We need time to think about ourselves. We need counseling and some communication. I'm still trying to find me.

Current situation—has own apartment and is a full-time staff member at The Door.

Maria, aged 18, considers herself homeless since 13 when, as the youngest of six children, she was thrown out by her alcoholic father who did not want the responsibility of her care. Survived by prostitution for a pimp, working on 8th Avenue from 45th to 50th Street. Eventually, became pregnant, married and completed the eleventh grade while at school for pregnant teenagers. She left her husband because he beat her.

I see nothing for me in the future. For my kid. I see a lot. I'm going to put him in school and have an open relationship with him and show him a lot of things. The people in Washington should know that there should be more programs for youth and more couselors. There should be a cadet corps task force that brings kids together from nine years up and trains them instead of having kids hanging out and being in gangs.

Current situation—supported by welfare; living with ill mother and infant.

Terra, aged 23, considers herself officially homeless at 19 although really homeless for a much longer period of time due to emotional separation between herself and her parents. One of three children in a traditional Syrian family but headed by an alcohol abusing father, she lived at home, using and selling heavy drugs from age 14. She eventually left home and supported herself by working at Brooklyn College where she is now a student.

I used to see myself lying dead somewhere in a dark alley—that was my only goal. I had no reason to live and it was fun doing drugs. The people in Washington should know that we need more centers—free and confidential—where you don't need parents' permission to get help and access to counseling. We need more family therapy so we can work with parents as well as kids instead of removing the kids from the home. Kids are sent away to institutions because fami-

lies don't want them. Parents need to get themselves together instead of making it the kid's responsibility to deal with his family.

Current situation—has own apartment, is in college and working.

Kwaku, aged 19, considers himself homeless for four months. Only child of family in St. Louis; mother is a librarian, step-father is in the plumbing business; father works for the Federal government. Was sent to boarding school at eleven and thrown out by mother after completing high school because he would not go to college.

Being on my own is like a dream—I've never experienced anything like it—my life has been so sheltered. I must learn how to fight the entire world. There's such a possibility of violence and I'm not ready for it. I need to confront the reality of money and the devaluation of personal choice; I don't have the feeling of possibilities. The people in Washington should know we need more neighborhood centers with sports and recreation facilities, where people will be treated with individualization and diversity.

Current situation—living off homosexual friends, unemployed.

Andre, aged 20, considers himself homeless since 15 when he was placed in various group homes by his mother. Was one of four children with multi-step-fathers coming in and out of the home. He worked off the books in the garment center and "stayed with friends." He has completed high school.

I'd like to be a houseparent in a group home. I can't conquer the world but I can do my part. Life is not worth living unless you have something you take seriously. I'm really depressed—I always went to school, even when I was in the street, but I don't see that it's paid off. The people in Washington should know we need after-care and follow-up help with employment after leaving a group home.

Current situation—has been working for the NYC Bureau of Child Support for the last two months and shares an apartment with a friend.

Gus, aged 23, considers himself homeless since 18 when he was pushed out for a five year period by his mother upon their immigration from Spain. His survival techniques included homosexuality and off-the-books employment. He also lived in a drug rehabilitation program for a year although he had no drug problem. He has completed high school.

There is no stability in being on your own; I never had a permanent job or knew where I was going to be. I drifted around; going in circles, very depressed and trying not to think about the future. When a person is pushed out of the home, it is dangerous. I got involved with people who used me for their purposes—I was vulnerable and not emotionally ready. People take desperate measures to survive when they are hungry and have no place to stay. The people in Washington should know that we need more counselors and more training programs to learn how to work. The schools are terrible—teachers don't care whether you learn or not. They want to get their paperwork done and go home. We need more counselors and more individual attention.

Current situation—living with mother and hoping to get into a work/study program at design school.

Fran, aged 22, considers herself homeless since 13 when her mother, who beat her, had a nervous breakdown. One of three children, she survived by living with relatives and when at home, spending as much time as possible out of the house. Employed by Neighborhood Youth Corps, she worked from the time she was 15.

I had to come out of all of this. I had perseverance and lots of tears. I assessed I couldn't get too far on my own and I didn't have another suitable option. The

people in Washington need to know that we need more small, intimate centers throughout neighborhoods and better guidance counselors at school.

Current situation—has here own apartment, works as a photographer, volunteers at The Door and attends college.

Jose, aged 21, considers himself homeless since 16. One of five siblings, he lived with his father and his aunt's seven children and felt he was a burden to the family. He was "scapegoated", forced out of the house and placed in programs. Eventually, he joined the "7 Immortals" a political clique, occupying an abandoned building on the Lower East Side. He left the gang to join Job Corps which trained him as an electrician. He has completed the fourth grade.

I see these young girls and guys standing near the Port Authority hustling and I feel like I should say something to them—but what can I say? It kind of hurts. The people in Washington need to know that young people need a challenge and we need to know ourselves. People should treat us sympathetically and understand. We need a program environment where kids have supervision and can also express themselves.

Current situation—has had his own apartment for four months and is working as an electrician's apprentice.

Anthony, aged 20, considers himself homeless since 16 when his mother died and his older brother, a doctor on Long Island, refused the responsibility of taking care of him. He survived by working in fast food operations, "staying with different people," and sleeping in the subways. He has completed the eleventh grade.

I have the potential but I need to get credentials to survive. I walk around 42nd Street and see the level of insanity. There is a lot of emotion there—people feel that no one cares, there's no one to talk to. They need to get jobs so they don't have to hustle—sell their bodies or drugs. They need education to deal with society, half of them can't even speak—they just say "yeah, man—yeah man." That's not influential and won't get a job. There's a lot of hatred of society and the status symbol of red, white and blue. There's a lot of hatred of self—you live to die, whether by knife or bullet. Utopia has been projected as a dollar bill. Washington needs to emphasize the majority helping the minority; helping to pull them up. There's a feeling of loneliness which turns you into a barbarian so you'll sell your body to get a place to sleep.

Current situation—doing maintenance work in a factory for the past two months and has had own apartment during that period.

C.C., aged 17, considers herself homeless since 13, when as the youngest of 10 children, her mother told her to leave. She survived by staying with strangers, friends, working in a day care center, walking dogs and babysitting.

I'd like to be a person who has a good job—be a mother, have a family. When the time comes, I want to be open to my child and remember what I went through. Adolescence is the time when you need your parents most. The people in Washington need to know that teenagers need financial help because the pregnancy rate is high. People get pregnant because there is nothing else to do. They have to acknowledge that we are growing up twice as fast as before. Our future depends on these young mothers and fathers but they need help—they need shelters. Our priorties are for off-track betting—but we need little apartments for people who need to get themselves together. We need recreation centers, supervision, order and counselors.

Current situation—attending school and living with mother, step-father, sister and sister's two young children. Is afraid of step-father

who has approached her the "wrong way" and of mother forcing her out again.

Ronald, aged 15, considers himself homeless since 12. One of six children, he was put in many programs by his mother. He ran away from placement and joined the Baby Skulls, kindergarten for entry into the Savage Skulls, a fighting gang in the South Bronx. He has completed the seventh grade.

I've been through the whole hardship of living on my own. I'll be something big—with a slightly middle-class pattern to it. The people in Washington should know that we need programs—but not like group homes with such strict rules. People should be able to work or go to school in the day and have a place to stay at night. People think all kids are bad—they think they are wild. When chains are put on kids, they will fight back. Society has to give in some way. People don't want to realize that times have changed—after all, a nickel candy bar now costs a quarter.

Current situation—working in a supermarket, getting remedial education and has been living in his own apartment for the past three months.

Quinette, aged 19, considers herself homeless since 17. Original father has disappeared; new step-father will not permit her to live with step-mother. She has been in programs worked off the books in fast food operations and as a counselor in a group home in Canada. Was robbed of her money in New York and is destitute. She has completed the eleventh grade.

If I get in a jam, there's no one to help. The people in Washington should know that all I need is a little bit of help. I have nothing. Just some place to stay permanently so I don't have to move every week. I need help to get a job—after that, I don't need much more. Just a little security and some supervision. I'm not too sure that I might not get started and then go back down the way I did before without support to tell me to do what is right. It's tough—really hard for a girl. I almost got raped.

Current situation—streets.

Tariq, aged 20, considers himself homeless since 15 when his mother's boyfriend threw him out. One of five children, he survived by going from one program to another, stealing clothes, working in supermarkets, and sleeping in parks and hallways. He has completed the eighth grade.

I need to get back into school, find a job and get a place to live. Without a place to live, you can't have a job. You need a place to rest, to get yourself together and plan what to do the next day—not stay in the street wondering if you will be jumped or sleeping in the rain. I don't like being on my own, I feel confusion, anger and frustration. I'm five years older now and nothing has changed—very few opportunities have come up. The people in Washington should know that there has to be a change—people are at the point where they can't wait anymore. It's right now—there's so much tension, people are so frustrated—there are no doors open to them—they have no options. There's a street mentality—you don't care what has to be done in order to survive. I keep trying and trying but it's hopeless. A person living on his own without support has to turn to crime and to things that are illegal. It's the only alternative as the doors are always closed.

Current situation—left his last job due to homosexual advances by employer's son; now unemployed with rent due on apartment.

Notwithstanding the obvious differences between survival options and resources in urban and suburban settings, most youth identified the same primary causes for their being homeless.

Suburban homeless youth

Primary causes:	Number of youths
Beatings by mother/father	2
Parent did not want responsibility of support	4
Sexual relationship with stepfather	1
Thrown out by father's girlfriend	1
Thrown out by stepmother	2
Unmarried pregnancy	2
Suspected use of marijuana	1
Truancy	1
Lack of communication (house rules, money)	6

Secondary causes for becoming homeless revealed widespread parental alcohol abuse.

Urban homeless youth

Primary causes:	Number of youths
Beatings by mother/adoptive mother	2
Parent did not want responsibility of support	6
Sexual relationship with stepfather	1
Thrown out by mother's boyfriend	1
Abandoned by both stepparents	1
Scapegoated by father	1
Lack of communication (conflict over ethnic and cultural traditions)	3
Parent shipped youth to New York	2

Secondary causes of the homeless condition included other instances of physical and sexual abuse and a very high incidence of parental alcoholism. Also of note is the number of young people who have been in placement, with the juvenile justice or child welfare system. Seven out of seventeen urban homeless youth indicated they had been in foster care and group homes and had all experienced multiple placements. It is also notable that two out of the seven young women interviewed were parents themselves and relying on public assistance for support.

Homeless youth are very clear about what they want and need. Despite despicable life situations and overwhelming anxiety and depression, they are well able to articulate their d[illegible]for work, education, counseling, supervision, family life and an el[illegible]able insecurity and loneliness. These young people are not looking [illegible] a handout; they are looking for ways to become full-fledged participants in society.

Findings

Although the data base included ten different geographical regions throughout the country and a heterogeneous population, the characteristics and condition of homeless youth are strikingly similar both in New York and nationwide. It is also notable that a limited sample would produce such a clear and dramatic concensus.

Sex.—Although the population is almost evenly divided, there are slightly more homeless males than females seen by programs.

Age.—The average age for homeless males is seventeen; the average age for homeless females is fifteen.

Ethnicity.—Ethnic composition is a factor of geographic location and programs generally serve youths reflecting that local population.

Families.—More homeless youth come from recombined families including an original parent and another adult.

Origin.—Many homeless youths come from nearby communities with the exception of young people from rural areas, small towns and small cities, who are likely to move farther than other homeless youth. [121]

Situation at contact.—Nationally, more homeless youth come to programs directly from home than New York youths, although many do try out various living situations; an estimated 10-30 percent come from other social service systems.

Educational performance level.—The national performance level is estimated at 7th-8th grade while the New York level indicates a lower range, from 3rd-8th grade.

Prior counseling.—The great majority of all homeless youth have had some type of counseling.

Medical problems.—Many homeless youth have medical problems which are similar, nationwide.

Causes for homeless condition.—Many youths are homeless because they have been forced out by their families, neglected and/or abused and have also experienced parental alcohol abuse.

In the study, "Identification of the Special Needs of Runaway Youth Due Primarily to Cultural or Demographic Factors" [122], information on homeless youth indicates:

> Pushouts are more likely to be older than they are to be younger. Seventeen year olds show the highest percentage (30 percent) of pushouts among the sample population. Fifteen and sixteen year olds shows the next highest percentage, 24 and 26 percent respectively. Frequent beating (by the mother and/or father) was reported more frequently by 15 and 16 year olds, 36 and 27 percent respectively. Physical abuse as the prime reason for running away was cited most often by 15 and 16 year olds.

The 1978 Annual Report on the Runaway Youth Act by the Youth Development Bureau lists reasons youngsters seek service: [123]

Reason	Age	Rank of reason
Pushed out	13-14	10
	15	6
	16	4
	17-20	3
Emotional neglect	4-10	2
	11	7
	12	3
	13	4
	14	4
	15	4
	16	5
	17	5
	18-20	7
Independent living	16	8
	17	4
	18	1

Physical neglect was mentioned as a cause for leaving by youngsters aged 4-10, and by youths aged 12; both groups ranked it as the 6th reason. Fear of physical abuse was mentioned by 12 year old youths and ranked as their 9th reason. Parental alcoholism was mentioned as the 8th most important reason for leaving by youngsters aged 11. Although parental alcohol abuse is noted as a reason for leaving by the 11 year old group only, it is given as a reason for not returning home by youth coming to programs for the first time or as repeaters. Being pushed out of home and emotional neglect are also indicated both as reasons for seeking service and as reasons for not returning home (Appendix K).

Further data reported in the "Development of a Typology and the Identification of Service Needs of Runaway Youth Unable or Unwilling to Return to Their Family Setting" disclosed:

> Eighty-four percent of the youth reported that they had been hit by their parents . . . Sixty-nine percent of those youth who had been hit have been beaten so hard that they had marks or bruises. Of these, 58 percent were beaten once a month or more, including 26 percent who were beaten every day. . . Sexual abuse was also frequently mentioned. Almost 10 percent spontaneously mentioned sexual abuse of some kind. Had we been permitted to ask specifically about sexual abuse, we feel the responses would have been much higher. Cases reported included rape, incest, or attempted sexual assault, either by the father, stepfather, or foster father . . . In many cases, these reports of physical or sexual abuse were combined with mention of the fact that a parent was alcoholic, drank heavily or used drugs. Close to 10 percent of respondents mentioned alcohol or drug abuse by their parents as a problem. In short, we cannot estimate the actual magnitude of this problem, but we feel that it is of growing importance. [124]

According to the National Council on Alcoholism, there are presently 10 million alcoholics in the United States and alcohol abuse now ranks high among the major national health problems. Since problem drinking and alcoholism have no socioeconomic boundaries, it is not surprising so many homeless young people experience abuse of alcohol by their parents. Contrary to widely believed myths.

> The average alcoholic is a man or woman in the middle thirties with a good job, good home and a family. Less than 5 percent of alcoholics are on Skid Row; 95 percent of alcoholics are ordinary people. [125]

Unfortunately, because drinking is a commonly accepted social mores, many people do not realize that alcohol is actually a drug and should be handled accordingly. "Alcohol is a depressant drug which acts on the central nervous system as an anesthetic. Chemically, it is similar to ether." [126] While problem drinkers would hardly gulp

down a shot of ether on the rocks, they get the same effects from alcohol. Alcohol use in this country is portrayed as sophisticated and fun, in advertisements depicting elegant cocktail parties, cook-outs on the beach or camping trips. Early warning signals of alcohol abuse are too often converted from danger signs to casually accepted social behaviour—having a few too many beers after work, being able to drink one's friends under the table, downing a double to bring on a mood change before going out in the evening, and taking alcohol as medicine or to calm the nerves. Use of alcohol can be insidious and drinking may quickly turn to abuse, particularly in times of stress.

As indicated earlier, many young people who have been forced to leave home encountered sexual and physical abuse by parents, in conjunction with parental alcohol abuse. Within recent years, the correlation between child neglect and abuse and alcoholism has been firmly established. The report, *Preventing Child Maltreatment: Begin with the Parents* states:

> The Washington Center for Addictions in Boston indicated that physical child abuse occurred in 13 percent of the families with an alcohol or opiate-addicted parent. Dr. Henry Kempe, a child abuse specialist, has determined that alcohol plays a part in one-third of these abuse cases. The Washington Center also found significant emotional neglect in its study of children from alcoholic homes. For example, because the alcoholic parent was frequently put out of the house, the children feared their own eviction. "Many of the children's drawings of the family symbolically included a pet that the mother had gotten rid of because he was unmanageable or dirty." [127]

It can be concluded that when a pattern of forcing out an alcoholic parent is established within a family, it is all too easy to force an adolescent out when stress occurs. In "Study Results: Maltreatment and Alcohol" (Appendix L), Dr. Douglas J. Besharov, Director of the Office of Child Development, National Center for Child Abuse and Neglect comments:

> Child maltreatment is often a symptom of deep personal, psychological and social dysfunction, and that alcoholism in many people can be characterized in the same way. Margaret Hindeman, formerly of the National Clearinghouse for Alcohol Information, indicates that: "Child abusers are most often described as having a low frustration tolerance, low self-esteem, impulsivity, dependency, immaturity, severe depression, problems with role reversals, difficulty in experiencing pleasure, and lack of understanding of the needs and abilities of infants and children." Most of these same characteristics are also attributed to alcoholics. [128]

Further confirmation of the correlation between parental alcohol abuse, rejection, beatings and being asked to leave home was demonstrated in the study, "Adolescent Life Stress as a Predictor of Alcohol Abuse and/or Runaway Behaviour." [129] In homes where the mother was an alcoholic, 22 percent of the fathers were also alcoholics as were 14 percent of the siblings. Of these families, 19 percent of the youths felt that their mothers rejected them and 21 percent felt their fathers rejected them. When rejection was additionally defined as being asked to leave home and/or being beaten, findings indicate that 22 percent were asked to leave and 23 percent had been beaten.

Sexual, physical and emotional abuse of adolescents is not a new phenomenon; however, it has only been within the last ten years that social service professionals have begun to regard it as a separate issue from abouse of infants and young children. Although pretty much ignored,

reported incidence data do show that the problem of adolescent abuse and neglect is significant. A compilation of incidence data for 1976 from the Clearinghouse and state registries indicates approximately 36 percent of nationwide child abuse and neglect cases involve victims between the ages of 10 and 18, and almost 25 percent involve teenage victims. [130]

In his paper, "Meeting the Needs of Mistreated Youths" (Appendix M), Dr. James Garbarino notes:

The American Humane Association has reported that adolescents are the victims in approximately one-third of the abuse cases reported to central registries. Moreover, the data gathered by these researchers support the view held by others that the mistreatment of adolescents is not so strongly related to socioeconomic deprivation as is the mistreatment of children. This view suggests that the mistreatment of adolescents is about as prevalent in affluent areas as it is in impoverished areas. In the latter, infants and young frustration and family isolation related to social and economic stress. However, the abuse of adolescents, compared with child abuse, seems to be less a correlate of class. [131]

This hypothesis is confirmed by the incidence of abuse reported both by Sanctuary, serving homeless youth from the wealthy enclave of Dix Hills, Long Island and by SAJA, located in Washington, D.C., which indicated that 85 percent of homeless youth come from families with inadequate family income. Information on non-returners collected by Boone, Young and Associates also demonstrates that those who

had problems with parents fell into two categories; those whose yearly income was less than $7,000 per year and those with a family income of $20,000 a year or higher. In addition, data exhibits that 50 percent of runaway youth from families earning $7,000–$9,999 per year are also among those more likely to be pushed out of the home. [132]

Further evidence from the Typology report on youths who can't or won't return home reveals:

A large percentage of youth interviewed reported that both parents have some college education and are both professionally or technically employed. The average runaway in this sample is not running away from an economically deprived home. This finding is supported by the fact that only 15 (11 percent) of the youth report that their family is supported by welfare. [133]

In light of the evidence that abused adolescents comprise at least one quarter of all reported abuse cases, it is obligatory to consider the reasons why this population has not received more attention. The major factors are that adolescents do not look like victims; they are not necessarily smaller or more defenseless than their abusers; they can fight back and can also avoid physical attacks by dodging blows or by leaving.

According to Steve Rorke, "Adolescents are changing and blossoming at the same time their parents, who are middle-aged, are closing down." [134] In the paper, "Adolescent Abuse and Neglect: Issues of Incidence, Intervention and Service Delivery" (Appendix N), both middle-age and adolescense are characterized as stressful periods with the "potential for conflict arising out of parents' and youths difficulties in responding well to age-appropriate behaviour of the other." [135] Consequently, normal adolescent development produces various kinds of behaviour which can appear provocative to parents, particularly at a period in their own lives where they are feeling a loss of power. Some conflict is almost inevitable.

Whatever the cause of parental abuse, whether initiated by the adult or in retaliation to adolescent moods, attitudes or reactions, neither the Child Protective Services nor law enforcement systems have been prepared to recognize abuse of adolescents as a serious problem. The main causes of this reluctance spring from a bias towards teenaged youth and an inability to realize they actually need protection. Other factors are the grave gaps in national and local efforts of Child Protective Service administrations. The recently released Comptroller General's Report to the Congress, "Increased Federal Efforts Needed to Better Identify, Treat and Prevent Child Abuse and Neglect" [136], illustrates a greatly distressing nationwide lack of timely investigations, insufficient and untrained staff, inadequate treatment capabilities or resources and little development of prevention programs. As far as adolescents are concerned, another study shows that:

> Despite an increase in the reporting of adolescent abuse and neglect cases, among workers in the service delivery system, there is not a general recognition of the extent of adolescent abuse/neglect. Generally, there are inadequate community-based interagency systems for: identifying service gaps, planning and reviewing abuse and neglect cases; and monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of the service network in dealing with the problems of adolescent abuse and neglect. [137]

In discussing reactions of Child Protective Service workers and police, Marie Marsh, Director of Diogenes Youth Services, currently participating in the Adolescent Maltreatment Project, said:

> Many systems don't see abuse of adolescents as abusive but only as a family problem, a parent/child conflict. In fact, our local Child Protective Services recently redrafted its criteria to cut out all adolescent cases unless they have medically treatable symptoms. We advocated on behalf of kids and got the criteria changed back but there is a trend towards filing incorrigibility petitions instead of abuse and neglect petitions. Saying that kids are incorrigible instead of their parents tells a lot about how our society targets adolescents. There are many liberal politicians who are getting concerned about kids breaking windows and they are scapegoating adolescents—taking all their frustrations out on them—and losing sight of what incarceration really does. [138]

Youth In Need, the other runaway program participating in the same Adolescent Maltreatment Project states:

> AMP staff found that police and DFS workers are not willing to act as quickly on adolescent maltreatment as they are for child abuse. Gaining cooperation of the other agencies in the initial stages of the project was somewhat of a problem . . . AMP staff experienced initial resistance to the projects efforts to develop linkages. Adolescents, as a class of clients needing help, were perceived as juvenile delinquents who needed to be handled by the police and taught a lesson. [139]

Marie Marsh, Director of Diogenes Youth Services continues:

> Law enforcement officers do not want to take abuse reports on adolescents because they think teenagers fight back. In fact, the police often say that the youth probably initiated the abuse by some provocative action and they won't file and the matter doesn't get to court. We are now trying to get Child Protective Service officers to come with police to take the case and report the abuse. [140]

Sue Schneider, Director of YIN asserts that:

> Even when we do get to court, the judges are using "environment injurious to the health of the child" for petitions because cases of abuse and neglect can be too hard to prove. [141]

Many other sources indicate problems in filing abuse petitions and they are often adjusted to neglect. In New York City,

Few cases are brought to Family Court on abuse petitions. The number of these petitions reached a high of 762 in 1975, dropped to 487 in 1977, and rose again to 571 in 1978. As the number of abuse petitions brought to court decreased, the character of the dispositions changed. The percent of cases withdrawn, dismissed, or for which judgment was suspended, dropped from 45.5 percent of all cases in 1973 to 32.0 percent in 1978. Court-ordered placement with DOSS increased from approximately 11 percent in 1973 to 33 percent in 1978 . . . Those familiar with Family Court explain that the abuse petitions do not represent the true number of abuse cases brought to court since a case involving abuse may be filed as a child neglect case . . . Since proof of neglect may be easier to establish, SSC brings neglect proceedings in many cases involving abuse. [142]

In addition to filing abuse petitions as neglect, abuse petitions are also filed as PINS or status offenses, puting blame directly on the adolescent instead of on the abusing parent. A study for the New York State Assembly disclosed that:

In more than a third of the cases of children who were being brought into the courts on PINS petitions the parent could have been charged with statutory abuse or neglect. "Court personnel readily admit that a high percentage of neglect cases are processed as PINS. Despite the option of reducing such cases to neglects, they are handled as PINS because judges in many cases do not want to face the delays and formalities that an accused parent and his or her lawyer will create. There is also a reluctance in some cases to accuse an adult; it is simply easier to deal with a youth." [143]

Misapplication of labels is not intrinsic to New York; the identical situation is found nationwide. Comparatively, many more hurt youngsters are blamed and mislabeled by the court than there are adolescents classified as abused. One conclusion from the study "Identification and Development of Community-Based Intervention Strategies and Treatment Approaches for Adolescent Abuse and Neglect", indicated:

Abused and neglected youth are more likely to be dealt with in the court system under status offense and delinquency petitions than under dependence and neglect (abuse and neglect) petitions. [144]

It is evident that adolescents having been first hurt and abused by parents are then again abused by the State.

Other youngsters, to escape maltreatment, come into contact with law enforcement officials in their attempts to survive and support themselves out of the home. Garbarino comments:

A recent study conducted in Arizona has compared the "crimes" committed by adolescents with a known history of maltreatment with crimes committed by those without such a history. "Escape" offenses (running away, truancy, and the like) accounted for 35 percent of the crimes by youngsters coming from homes in which abuse was present, "aggression" (assault) for 5 percent, and offenses such as theft for 60 percent. For the comparison group, escape offenses accounted for only 18 percent of the offenses, aggression for 5 percent, and other offenses for 77 percent. [145]

Whether abused adolescents come under the aegis of the child welfare or juvenile justice system, they will probably end up in the same facilities, regardless of route. Generally, initial placements out of home will be to foster families and if that modality fails, youths may next be sent to group homes; failure here usually leads to placement in some kind of juvenile justice program. According to the Director of Pyramid House, a limited secure facility for boys, located in the Bronx and operated by the New York State Division for Youth:

Incidence of abuse and neglect has risen considerably in our population over recent years. For many youths, this situation is actually their initial problem and the current abuse and neglect rate is running about 50–90 percent of all youths in the facility. [146]

Maggie Smith, Coordinator of Cedar Cottage, the only secure facility for girls in New York State asserts:

The girls have come from non-nurturing homes and they are emotionally rejected by their mothers by the time they are four or five years old. Usually, there are no fathers and they have been in the system and set up for rejection. They are disruptive in foster homes; foster families can't handle them and they start truanting and running away. Their behaviour is so abusive it leads to the street and they get into the juvenile justice system. We are now seeing some involved in prostitution which is new; before we had mainly shoplifting. Most of the girls have had two or three other placements before coming to us. Really, their basic crime is that they have been neglected. [147]

Garbarino states:

Mistreated youngsters need assistance if they are to overcome the effects of their experience. However, as "criminals" they are less likely to receive that assistance than they would as victims. Given the current state of services to youngsters in foster care and to status offenders receiving institutional care, neither form of care seems appealing as a developmentally enhancing experience . . . Although there are many capable and dedicated foster parents, the foster care system is a major social problem in its own right. [148]

A comprehensive and exhaustive study of "Children Without Homes", by the Children's Defense Fund itemized all the failures of the system, its neglect of youngsters placed in public care and its role in the deterioration of families (Appendix O). However, youth who are homeless, neglected, abused and generally deprived are often sent to live in restrictive, limiting foster care placements and, although innocent of any crime, these youngsters have no control over their living situation nor are they involved in the decision-making process. Sister Mary Paul Janchill, a nationally recognized advocate of preventive services for families comments:

The way the system is using it, the concept of less restrictive placement was not thought out sufficiently. Less restrictive does not mean less service or program. The kids are bored to death. They have no notion that there is anything for them—there is only minimal school, social attachments or clinical services. If a youngster must be away from home, placement should help develop autonomy in kids and agencies should avoid setting up silly rules which become a challenge to adolescents. Any normal kid would want to run from placements where agencies are not responsive, there are poor meals and the locations are miles away from their own environment. Kids see themselves as being "put away." [149]

In his paper, "Trends and Issues in the Deinstitutionalization of Youths in Trouble," Lerman also evinces concern with the implementation of the concept of less restrictive placement (Appendix P). In compliance with the Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1977, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention in 1978, promulgated guidelines which define characteristics of least restrictive environment as dependent on "size, distance from home, degree of security, restricted population mix and community programming—to determine whether status offenders and non-offenders are correctly placed." [150] Putting aside the problems of commingling delinquents with other youths, many child welfare programs used by the juvenile justice system are not in compliance with these regulations. Numerous facilities are located far away from youngsters' homes; youth are not free to

come and go as they choose; there may be neglible community programming if agencies operate their own on-grounds schools, vocational and recreation programs and facilities may have far more young people than the mandated number of residents. In many cases, the systems actually play a shell game; whereas State juvenile justice systems appear in compliance with Public Law, they are really recycling youngsters to child welfare agencies which are out of compliance. Lerman affirms that:

If we base a deinstitutionalization policy on the right of children to receive publicly subsidized care and services in the least intrusive, least restrictive, most integrated manner, then it would appear reasonable to pursue this approach in all fields. A broad approach to a least restrictive policy would be congruent with the position that children who are defined by federal status as non-offenders are entitled to equal application of the law—regardless of whether they are in a correctional, child welfare, or mental health category. [151]

It is no wonder that alternative programs serving abused, neglected and homeless youth find many young people have fled from traditional social service systems.

In discussing the foster-care system, alternative programs feel there is inadequate training, support and financial assistance to foster families.

Foster parents want to do the right thing but they don't know what that entails. They need careful orientation, training, and supervison while the youth is with them. Often, foster families end up continually calling the case workers because they have unrealistic expectations about the youth and finally, the kid comes back here, very depressed and feeling he's failed. [152]

A foster family may not have the skills to handle a difficult youngster, particularly when it is not the youth's first placement. The family may not be able to give the supports needed. [153]

Foster homes have never really been valued by those agencies which have foster family programs. They have been a dumping ground for provision of food, bed, nurturing and expected to be supportive of youth and take care of their needs. You can't have good foster-care in a system where the foster parent is not included in the planning for a kid—it can't just be an isolated service while the rest of the planning and treatment is done outside, by other people. The foster parent says "I feel devalued. I don't have in-put. I'm paid $167 per month and I don't need this additional responsibility without financial and emotional gratification." Also, the child care system marvels at how cheap foster homes are and that's why they are not viewed as the treatment of choice. They are not seen as a treatment agent and are not selected after assessment and matched with kids' needs. They should be viewed in a different perspective. You can't get something for nothing and that's what we are trying to get foster homes for. Here, we've set up a support group of foster families to reinforce and help each other. An experienced foster family assists a new family and it's been exceedingly effective. In fact, the group has done all their own training and recruiting of new families. [154]

From youths' standpoint, programs explain problems with placement exist because:

Youth have unrealistic expectations. They don't know in advance what you can or can't do in a foster or group home. They expect more privileges, freedom and independence and are confronted with a maze of rules and regulations. [155]

Youngsters often have a number of failures in placements. They get bounced around from one type to another and in each they fail and get kicked out again. They don't know how to break the cycle. They always see the failures as theirs. [156]

If there is nothing really wrong in the foster home, we should insist the youngster return there so we don't permit him to feel a sense of failure. Kid's don't like restrictions and they can play a manipulative game of "give me what I want or I'll run." Many foster homes are fine but then they refuse to take the youngster back and the youth feels that he struck out again. [157]

Within the last few years, alternative programs have recognized that many homeless youth are also abused and neglected and the programs are beginning to set up linkages with other community resources to provide services to these young people. In his paper, "Adolescent Abuse and Neglect: The Role of Runaway Youth Programs" (Appendix Q), Lourie assesses the role of runaway programs has broadened because social service agencies have been unresponsive to adolescent victims and

> Adolescents do not trust traditional social service systems. Because runaway youth programs are community-based and almost always staffed by younger adults, their environment is more conducive to the development of trust between client and counselor. [158]

In 1975 and 1976, two runaway programs, SAJA and Youth Emergency Services, were selected by the National Institute on Mental Health to assess the incidence of abuse and neglect among the youngsters they served.

> These early studies led to a belief that some aspects of alternative services, such as the use of runaway houses, were important components in intervention with abusing families of teenagers. [159]

In 1978, the Youth Development Bureau, in conjuction with the National Institute on Mental Health and the National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect further addressed the problem of adolescent abuse. Two runaway programs, Diogenes Youth Services and Youth In Need were chosen to develop models to

> increase the coordination and referral capabilities of State Child Protective Service Agenies (CPS) and runaway youth programs. This effort will increase the ability of runaway youth programs to serve as CPS referral resources for abusive families. Additionally, Youth In Need, St. Charles, Missouri, will develop resources for the long-term placement of abused adolescents and Diogenes, Sacramento, California, will develop linkages to local community resources for addressing the needs of abused adolescents and their families. [160]

According to Diogenes Youth Services, one-third of their youngsters have already been in other systems where the abuse factor remained unidentified. The program feels there is a tremendous need to educate the community to adolescent abuse, as well as a necessity to intervene with families in coordination with Child Protective Services, so that services can be given for longer periods. Diogenes is also involved in organizing, training and advocacy efforts with the community and is participating in the Sexual Diversion Project in which the abusive perpetrator is removed from the home. The program strongly urges that attackers, rather than victims should be ejected but in the event that adolescent victims leave, youngsters can be referred to Diogenes instead of the Childrens' Receiving Center, where behaviour is restricted and youth are detained.

As implemented at Youth in Need, the Adolescent Maltreatment Project (Appendix R) provides 24-House Hotline Counseling, "usually the first contact the client has had with the project"; Face to Face Crisis Intervention, "to assess the emotional and/or physical condition of the youth, and discuss or clarify the options for services"; Shelter for up to two weeks, which "alleviates immediate stress without going through a bureaucratic agency"; Casework Counseling, including coordination with juvenile officers and Division of Family Service staff to "file abuse reports, communicate with the parents of

the maltreated youth to let them know the youth is in shelter care, and arrange for referrals and case conferences"; Individual Counseling and Therapy, which "gives clients a chance to talk about and sort out their feelings"; Couples Counseling and Therapy to "improve the family system, decrease victimization of the maltreated adolescent and refocus the problem back on the family as a unit"; Family Therapy to "help the family define what they see the problem to be, and work toward resolving the concerns"; and Adolescent Group, which "enables youth to get in touch with their feelings through support from peers who may be facing similar problems." [161]

Preliminary policy implications suggest there is a need to:

> Increase the awareness of the phenomena of adolescent abuse/neglect and to emphasize the need to develop programs (at the community level) or to expand existing community programs to impact on this problem area;
>
> Develop models for training of adolescent abuse/neglect workers;
>
> Strengthen community planning and programming capacities for the treatment of adolescent sexual abuse (incest); and
>
> Enhance the capacity of social service agencies to develop interagency systems for the identification of and intervention in adolescent abuse and neglect cases and to develop effective approaches for monitoring and evaluating these intervention services. [162]

Although Diogenes Youth Services and Youth In Need are the only runaway programs participating in the Adolescent Maltreatment Project, many other alternative programs are establishing similar linkages and services. The Cherokee National Youth Shelter is setting up a peer counseling program for sexually abused youth. Martha Vaughan, Director, believes that sexually abused youngsters "often blame themselves and peer counselors can assist them in knowing they are not to blame or alone with their problems." [163] Pat Vivian, Director of the Shelter Runaway Center notes the necessity to make program staff sensitive to abused youngsters "so they know how to question and get information from a young person. Often, youth do not even know the words or have the vocabulary to express what has happened to them and staff need training in this area." [164] Judy Williams at Towner House adds, "We are beginning to get more initial clues. Our counselors are more suspicious, earlier, and we are getting more sophisticated." [165]

In summary, runaway programs are in fact serving abused, neglected and homeless young people who find them an attractive, positive and preferred option to other social service systems. Programs have been flexible and innovative in meeting youths' changing requirements and have modified services to match youngsters' emerging needs. The programs have expanded and broadened relationships with the local community and are effecting linkages to provide additional resources for homeless youth. An important factor in their success is the commitment of staff and their obvious determination to act as advocates for needy young people.

Recommendations

The purpose of this report was to examine the phenomenon of homeless youth, define the population, describe the families they come from, discover the techniques used by youth to survive, explore services and resources available to them and make some assessment about their future life options.

In investigating the phenomenon of homeless youngsters, it is evident that families all over the country are throwing children out of their homes. Parents are telling youth to go and are pushing them out, long before youth are ready to leave. Divorces are taking place between adolescents and their families and it is occurring throughout the United States. Premature separation, without agreement, is happening in every State and in every geographical region. It is true that more homeless young people appear in urban areas searching for a way to live as it is difficult to exist alone, surviving in a cornfield. However, youngsters are being thrown out of homes from middle America; Native American reservations; slums and Park Avenue apartments. Either they are forced out by parental abuse that is intolerable, be it physical, sexual or emotional or they are told straight out "go—get out." When they try to return, youngsters often find door locks changed and telephones slammed down by parents who are not willing or able to cope with them. Having recognized that the phenomenon of homeless youth exists, it is important to realize that it's not happening "out there" someplace. This is not something that "other people" do to "them"; this is what "we" are doing to "our" children.

The information characterizing the homeless youth population further confirms they are everybody's children. Males and females are almost equally apt to be pushed out; the primary age for girls is 15 while boys are a little older, aged 17. However, it is implicit that these signify average ages and programs report having seen youths as young as 11 at their doors. Other programs note the greatest gap in service is for youths 16–19 and it can be concluded that the age spread is wide indeed. Some homeless youth have been the only child in a family whereas others may have seven or eight siblings. A further complication is the so-far unexplored problems in the area of recombined families and the difficulties inherent when strangers intrude, whether as step-parents, boy/girlfriends or step-siblings, bringing along with them a multiplicity of triangulated relationships, jealousies, rivalries, new alliances and new rejections.

Families of homeless youth are in a state of emotional deterioration and exhaustion. Whether one or both parents are working or the family income comes from public assistance, taking its attendant loss of personal esteem, parents are not making time to give adolescents the attention they need. They are not listening, talking, or hearing their hopes, failures and dreams a necessary part of adolescence. Many

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families, for whatever reason, are abusing one of our most dangerous drugs—alcohol—which consequently permeates the entire family structure causing damage to all. Additionally, some parents are violently beating and punching adolescents; are continuing or beginning incestuous relationships and are emotionally attacking them by cursing, screaming and scapegoating. Perhaps the saddest youngsters of all are those who were earlier rejected by parents who could not or would not care for them. These young people, removed from their homes and turned over to the State, find their new settings cold, unloving, impersonal and they voluntarily leave and become homeless again. It is undoubtedly difficult to perceive a program as "home" when youths are considered "cases," "clients" or "statistics."

Homeless youth survive by using their wits and their bodies. Since they have very limited education or work experience, they are fortunate to find jobs as waitresses, busboys, or truckloaders. Inextricably bound by laws restricting the rights of minors to work and the necessity for permits and identification, they are only able to find "off the books" employment which hardly leads to any career ladder. Those who can find a job are lucky. Others, to be able to eat or sleep inside in winter, must trade themselves in prostitution or by "staying with friends." When youngsters as young as 11 and 12 are "hooking," what future can society expect for their minds and souls.

The availability of social services to homeless youth depends on sponsorship by a system. For those who shoplift, sell drugs or engage in petty theft, the law enforcement system may pick them up in the web of juvenile justice/child care programs. Youngsters who have been victims of abuse and neglect can also gain entry to these same systems. However, without a bureaucracy to back them, homeless youth cannot crack the system on their own. Further, many of the placements and services of these systems are inappropriate or nonexistent for adolescents. It appears that runaway and alternative programs and preventive service agencies would be the most positive choices open to homeless youngsters.

An assessment of future life options for homeless youth is characterized by depression and despair. They have minimal schooling, job training or life skills and they do not have the know how or support systems to fit into the American mainstream. They don't have the luxury of trying out new roles and attitudes. They have not been given permission to fail and continue receiving warmth and concern from a loving family, enabling them to grow and try again. Homeless youth are caught up in staying alive until tomorrow but a new day doesn't bring security.

I

Since the phenomenon of homeless youth is a family problem, recommendations should appropriately focus on the family unit and perhaps broaden to include the social ills and stresses which cause family dysfunction. However, solutions for major societal problems are far beyond the scope of this report and recommendations are purposely being narrowed to pinpointing realistic measures which can be taken for homeless youth. It is hoped that some band-aids are better than none. It is a beginning.

Those most knowledgeable and aware of the needs of homeless youth are the front line staff and program directors who deal with these youngsters on a daily basis. Their recommendations are as follows:

Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter: 15 day time limit on program should be extended.

COMITIS Runaway/Time Out Program: Courses on survival skills should be taught in schools.

Diogenes Youth Services: Family skills programs and parent education courses should be developed.

Interface: More placement resources must be available; prevention and service must be done together.

National Runaway Switchboard, Metro-Help, Inc.: More independent living and emergency shelters should be established.

Place Runaway House: Services should be developed and targeted for older adolescents.

SAJA: Funding should be comprehensive, not categorical.

Shelter Runaway Center: Independent living programs should be established; prevention of abuse should be taught in elementary schools.

The Bridge Emergency Shelter: Prevention should be emphasized.

The Shelter, South Bend Youth Services: Family Counseling and efforts to keep youth at home should be expanded.

Towner House: Early intervention should be available to parents who know they will be abusive.

Youth Emergency Services: Education is needed by the general public about homeless youth.

Youth In Need: More supports are needed for families; better placement assessments should be done.

RECOMMENDATION I—RESUBMISSION OF FEDERAL REGULATIONS—RUNAWAY YOUTH PROGRAM

The 15 day maximum time limit on "temporary shelter" was promulgated in the Regulations of the Runaway Youth Division and published in the Federal Register, November 28, 1978. Many programs have indicated 15 days is too short a time period to permit adequate assistance to homeless youth. One aspect of the problem is that abused, neglected and homeless youngsters need alternative living situations. It is unrealistic to assume programs can locate hard-to-find placements for adolescents or gain entry into the social service bureaucracy within the 15 day time frame. For that reason, programs have no legal alternatives except returning youth to the street or disregarding the Federal regulations. The latter is in fact, occurring.

The second part of the problem is that youth need more than such a short period to reach the mental state where they can begin to think about their futures and make intelligent plans. When homeless youths come to programs, they need to sleep, eat, get clean clothing, take a bath, and possibly see a doctor. They cannot possibly divert time or attention to dwell on anything except the immediate future.

One finding of the National Evaluation of the Runaway Program is that many programs are allowing youths to stay longer than permitted and in fact, the length of stay showed a positive correlation to youths' subsequent success in making decisions.

The client impact analysis suggests that large numbers of youth are being provided shelter by the projects for longer than one or two weeks. This expansion in the average length of stay stems partly from the various characteristics of the clients, such as the high percentage of youth requiring out-of-home placements. However, the client impact analysis suggests that the length of stay in shelter facilities does, in fact, correspond in a positive manner to the level of success that the projects achieve with clients on certain indicators. For example, 90 percent of those youth who received temporary shelter for more than 14 days were described by project staff as being better able to make decisions about the future, while only 43 percent of the youth who received a single night of shelter and 56 percent of the youth who stayed on two to seven nights at the project were viewed in this manner. Similarly, 72 percent of the youth who had stayed at a project over two weeks reported that the project had helped resolve their major problem while only 50 percent of the youth who had stayed one night and 42 percent of the youth who stayed two to seven nights shared this opinion. [166]

It is therefore recommended that since programs are having great difficulties in providing service to abused, neglected and homeless youths, within the Federally approved regulations, these same guidelines be reviewed and resubmitted by the appropriate Federal agency to the Congress of the United States, the runaway programs and all other interested and concerned groups. In an attempt to respond to this problem, it is hoped that comments and recommendations will be sought from as large a group as possible. This review should take place immediately as a natural by-product of the currently proposed 1980 Reauthorization of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974.

II

The majority of other recommendations made by programs concerned two significant areas; preventive services to families and youth and independent living for those adolescents who cannot be at home.

The merits of prevention are widely accepted and have been thoroughly discussed and demonstrated over a number of years. Among social service professionals, there is a concensus that this catch-all phrase includes many successful methods to give families support and keep them strong and intact. Whether the focus is on homemaker services, respite care, or parenting education, there is general concurrence these are effective and valuable ways to provide family assistance. The costs have also been computed, ad infinitum and it has been proven that preventive services are cost effective and permit a good return on public monies. Witness the data developed by the New York State Board of Welfare indicating comparative costs, per annum, per child, in 1975. [167] (Appendix S):

Prevention:	
Homemaker	$2,000
Family day care	2,000
Housing assistance	1,000
Placement:	
Foster care	5,200
Group home	15,400
Secure detention	42,000

While prevention is heavily espoused, it is not proportionately implemented or funded. In fact, funding incentives and accepted priorities still lean towards established social service agencies which are not particularly oriented to prevention.

In recent years, as more information has become available about children under care, there has been an increased awareness that in many cases, foster-care placement was being used in response to family problems requiring services other than the removal of children. [168]

There are a number of national attitudes which impede the expansion of preventive services. First, there is the on-going myth that Americans are rugged pioneers who were able to conquer the wilds of the continent without needing social service systems—and they all lived happily after. Secondly, there is a feeling that families are inviolate, the last bastion, our castles, where no outsiders should intrude, least of all, government. Another bias is that nobody should get something for nothing. Until an adolescent is forcibly thrown out of the house, a divorce is finalized or an employee fired for alcoholism, there is no tangible proof that something has gone wrong. Assistance is usually delayed until it is much too little and comes far too late. A fourth attitude is unwillingness to take emotional or financial responsibility for others. Those who can afford private social services in times of stressful periods have little compassion, and some blame, for those who need supports from public monies.

Notwithstanding the undercurrents which have been obstacles to implementation of prevention, the runaway programs strongly advocate these services. They recommend parenting education be obligatory in school curricula so that young people grow up aware of what it means to be a family member, what rights and responsibilities that membership entails and that they have appropriate expectations for behaviour of infants and young children.

We have to work with youths before they have children, when they are young and in schools. We need to help improve the way people get along and how they handle their feelings. It's not enough to try and pick up the pieces later on. [169]

It was also urged that present parents be offered seminars and workshops in parenting skills. When Diogenes Youth Services asked families what services they would most like, requests centered on courses to develop parenting techniques. "Many parents who feel they have done an o.k. job with babies or in early childhood feel they are doing a terrible job with teenagers." [170] Towner House further suggests there be assistance available for parents who know in advance they will be abusive or neglectful if youngsters remain at home.

Instead of their acting out eventually, we should permit parents to express feelings early so we can do something about the situation beforehand. We should not neglect parents in these cases; they have gone through many things which have brought them to this situation and we need to help them. [171]

Notes Judy Pierson of Youth Emergency Services, "I spent 18 years in juvenile court and I never met a parent who wanted to be a bad parent." [172]

The programs also emphasized the importance of including all family members in counseling. Many problems effect everyone in the family, whether on a visible or underground level. Historically, there has been some reluctance to attend counseling sessions for fear of being labeled a mental health client. Currently, with the focus on incest and violence towards adolescents, counseling programs are being set up to work with the whole family in efforts to prevent reoccurrences of the situation and resolution of the underlying causes of the problem.

Programs forcefully advise that unless all members are involved in getting help for family problems, youngsters experience distorted perceptions. They assume the entire family problem is solely theirs and feel unfairly blamed.

A logical place to identify emerging family problems for early intervention are the local schools which daily hold youngsters captive for at least ten years. In addition to providing an education, schools should be the first line of defense in an early warning system. Teachers and other personnel cannot fail to recognize when youths are bruised, injured, underfed, improperly dressed, fearful, seemingly troubled, or any of the other outward signs of abuse and neglect. Although some limited efforts are being initiated to train teachers of young children in spotting child abuse, little is being done for adolescents and their families.

Few schools cope adequately with these challenges. For many, abuse and neglect are either taboo topics or are tacitly accepted as part of the normal routine of family life. Given the manifest concern of many individual teachers and administrators, school personnel should be included in a community's network of services for helping mistreated youths. The current pessimism in many circles about the potency and good intentions of schools, although well founded in many cases, should not lead to the exclusion of school personnel in the helping process. The assistance of teachers and administrators is essential if mistreated teenagers are to acquire social behavior of which society approves.[173]

The system is in place. All that is needed is the commitment of support for schools so they can make linkages with other community resources to prevent family disruption and dysfunction.

In cases where family breakdown cannot be averted by preventive services and young people are forced out of home, there are few places for them to go. Resources are very limited and there is a great lack of appropriate living alternatives. Youth who are between the ages of 16 and 19 are really in no-person's land; States are not concerned with them and society won't accept them as adults. For this reason, it is essential to establish small, independent living units where homeless youth can live semi-autonomously, with caring, involved staff. An intrinsic component of independent living is the acquisition of survival skills, so that homeless youth learn to cook, clean, shop, budget and manage a household. Additionally, they should be taught life skills such as getting and keeping a job, entering contracts, negotiating life and health insurance, opening a bank account and obtaining other knowledge which adults are assumed to possess. Independent living can provide homeless youth the opportunity to consider life options; to choose to return to school or to enter a vocational program. Also, it would give them a chance to fail and still be supported in a safe environment where they could learn from mistakes. Certainly, some people will take umbrage at this notion and forecast hordes of young people leaving perfectly healthy homes, in preference to these attractive environments. However, youngsters really do want to be with their own families and in their own homes. In general, they will put up with many other difficulties when warmth, love, mutual respect and caring are also present.

According to the programs, independent living settings provide the last chance to help.

If we can connect with homeless youth and give them stability for 12–14 months, they may make it. [174] This is the last shot we have to give people a

boost to get over this hump and make it. There are no other specific times that we can pump into. It has to be possible to reach these kids now, when they are 15 and 16. We need a strong commitment to youth and its problems. [175]

RECOMMENDATION II—INCREASED FEDERAL COMMITMENT TO EXISTING LEGISLATION

The suggestions by these programs and others (Appendix T) do not require any new laws or amendments to existing legislation. The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, Sec. 223. (a) (10) provides for "advanced techniques" which include among other things: [176]

(A) Community-based programs and services for the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency through the development of foster-care and shelter-care homes, group homes, halfway houses, homemaker and home health services, and any other designated community-based diagnostic treatment, or rehabilitative service;

(B) Community-based programs and services to work with parents and other family members to maintain and strengthen the family unit so that the juvenile may be retained in his home;

(C) Youth service bureaus and other community-based programs to divert youth from the juvenile justice court or to support, counsel or provide work and recreational opportunities for delinquents and youth in danger of becoming delinquent;

(D) Comprehensive programs of drug and alcohol abuse education and prevention and programs for the treatment and rehabilitation of drug addicted youth, and "drug dependent" youth;

(E) Educational programs or supportive services designed to keep delinquents and to encourage other youth to remain in elementary and secondary schools or in alternative learning situations.

Certainly, this Act, in conjunction with other major legislation approved by Congress provides an adequate framework for services to abused, neglected and homeless youth (Appendix U). What is needed, however, is the commitment to implement programs as they were intended and to provide a level of entitlement which makes the legislation more effective for families and youth. Although there is no national formal, written family impact statement, the combined effect of these laws permits implementation of a positive, strong pro-family policy. It's time to get the job done.

III

On March 19, 1980, Senator Birch Bayh introduced the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act Amendments of 1980: S. 2441. (Appendix V). Co-sponsors of the bill were Senators Kennedy, Culver, DeConcini, Baucus, Mathias and Dole. On March 26 and 27, 1980, Hearings were held by the Committee on the Judiciary and on May 20, 1980, the bill was unanimously approved by the full Senate.

The proposed legislation renames Title III as the Runaway and Homeless Youth Act, reflecting the focus on homeless youngsters included in the Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1977. The legislation extends the reauthorization period for five years at a level of $25

million each for 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984 and 1985. Additionally, the Amendments expand the client population eligible for services, strengthens governmental and private sector programs for families and youth needing service and give the Secretary statutory authority to continue funding of the national telephone communications system which links youths with families or service providers.

Similarly, on March 5, 1980, Mr. Andrews introduced H.R. 6704 which was co-sponsored by Messrs. Perkins, Coleman, Hinson, Kildee, Hawkins, Railsback, Corrada, Stack, Kogovsek and Mrs. Chisholm (Appendix W) and on March 19, 1980, Hearings were held by the Subcommittee on Human Resources. Although there are some differences between the Senate and House versions, both bills broaden the name and scope of Title III to Runaway and Homeless Youth. (Appendix X).

Notable by its absence, is any reauthorization legislation from the Administration. Although mandated by law to submit a continuation bill by May 15, 1979, the Administration did not comply with the rules. Despite constant reminders and prodding by Congress, the Administration did not forward legislation until March 26, 1980—one day before the Senate hearings on the runaway and homeless youth act. This record of delay can only raise questions as to the effectiveness of internal operations or the intent and commitment of the Administration to the runaway and homeless youth population.

RECOMMENDATION III—APPROVAL AND REAUTHORIZATION OF THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT

Since the time that the original Runaway Youth Act was approved, the nature of the runaway problem has changed dramatically. In general, young people are no longer running to seek adventure, thrills or to escape parents' rules, school or other responsibilities. Now, many youngsters are leaving because of insupportable family conditions or because they are being thrown out.

> There's a big difference in the way the Act was conceived and the way it's working. One could call them runaways but they are a different kind than before. Now, they are homeless, for good reasons. [177]
>
> Kids are not leaving for the "good life" but because they perceive their home situation is unendurable. It's not a question of kids "getting their own way" and living off the government. They don't have any choice. [178]

Currently, the majority of programs assert at least 20–30 percent of the young people they see will not or cannot return to their families. Other programs estimate that up to 90 percent won't be able to be reunited with their parents.

A study of 137 homeless youth, interviewed three months after leaving runaway programs indicated that 70 percent of the young people were unable or unwilling to return home, or both. [179] There is no way to predict whether sizable numbers of homeless youth will eventually go home. Discussions with programs and existing data leads to the conclusion that reconciliations are most unlikely. Placed in perspective that homeless adolescents are nearing the age of adulthood, it is even more probable they will not be returning to their parents. For these reasons, the renaming and expansion of Title III is an appropriate and sensitive response by Congress to the realities occurring in the youth population.

During fiscal year, 1979, 165 projects received funds from the Runaway Youth Act. During Senate Hearings, March 27, 1980, Administration officials commented that with increased staff and a higher appropriation level, they were prepared to double the number of existing programs. In fact, it was noted the Youth Development Bureau had already received and reviewed a substantial number of applications for projects which meet the funding criteria. Considering the many service needs of homeless youth and the gaps in shelters and resources, a higher funding level is indeed warranted.

A major emphasis of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 was the provision of aftercare counseling to youngsters and their families. Since homeless youth do not go home, the nature of aftercare must be modified to allow follow up and support to these youngsters as they move towards independent living.

> We should work with the kids for a longer time. We should stay in touch for a year so we can give them support and they know they have someone to contact. Now, we don't have time. [180]

The National Evaluation of the Runaway Youth Program attributes the inability of programs to provide aftercare to lack of staff resources.

> According to our cost analysis, those projects that operate a temporary shelter facility have committed over 25 percent of their staff resources to simply maintaining and operating the shelter. When one adds the time projects spend providing individual counseling, family counseling, and group activities, a full 42 percent of all paid staff hours have been covered. Considering that the projects spend, on average, 40 percent of their staff time on administrative and non-client-specific functions, such as community education programs and general youth advocacy, roughly 18 percent of the staff's working hours remain to provide the additional services that projects want to offer their clients. [181]

An increased appropriation level is crucial to the provision of more services, establishment of shelters and independent living programs and additional staff resources for aftercare support.

A higher appropriation could also make possible funds for needed research and demonstration projects concerning homeless youth. Whether in conjunction with other agencies, under the legislated Concentration of Federal Efforts or independently, the Youth Development Bureau should consider the following:

Study of homeless youths' families, characteristics, dynamics and prior interaction with social service systems.

Assessment of ways abused, neglected, homeless youngsters perceive themselves—(victimized, guilty) with intent of modifying forms of treatment. A second study might demonstrate the way these youngsters are viewed by parents, teachers, peers.

Development of linkages with schools and other community resources to provide early intervention to abused, homeless and neglected youth.

Study of the dynamics of alcohol abuse in families of homeless youth with emphasis on alcoholism as a family problem.

Development and implementation of training programs for programs staff in handling neglected, abused and homeless adolescents.

In coordination with the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, the Youth Development Bureau should review the effect of deinstitutionalization on status offenders, abused and neglected

youth. It is vital to assess the appropriateness of placements and the reasons so many youths do not remain. The study should include the identification of needed resources, necessary modifications or existing systems and alternatives to placement.

There has been widespread praise and backing for the reauthorization legislation coming from all over the country. Supporters include concerned citizens, advocates, youth workers, members of the legal profession, appointed and elected officials, and many groups such as the National League of Cities; U.S. Conference of Mayors; National Governors Association; National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges and various coalitions for children and youth. The Child Welfare League testified it:

> supports the continuation of Title III, The Runaway and Homeless Youth Act, and believes that the additional emphasis on homeless youths within this program underscores the needs of the population of youths which are seeking services from the programs created by the Runaway Youth Act. [182]

The National Council of Jewish Women states:

> We are in complete support of the retitling of Title III; of its reauthorization for five years; and of the proposed appropriations levels. The addition of the word "Homeless" to the title reflects what the real situation is. According to reports from our members who are involved in programs for runaways and homeless youth, and current research, many children are "pushed out" of their homes, or are fleeing from an unhealthy and dangerous home situation, which may involve the alcoholism and drug addiction of their parents, physical abuse and neglect, and sexual abuse. The plight of young women who are sexually abused is of particular concern to us. Homeless, they become further victimized by criminals as well as by inequitable and unresponsive handling by official agencies. [183]

With continued commitment and dedication to the youth and families of this Nation, it is expected Congress will surely move to approve Title III, the Runaway and Homeless Youth Act, of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act Amendments of 1980.

Conclusion

This report has identified homeless youth as a sad, despairing group of young people who have been neglected, abused and rejected by their families and largely ignored by the rest of society. They live a fragile, fringe existence—neither children nor adults—trying to survive without sufficient skills, services or resources. It is understandable that many homeless youngsters turn to suicide and others engage in petty crime to meet their needs for food and shelter. The natural turmoil and flux of adolescence, combined with lack of knowledge and experience makes these young people prime targets as victims and exposes them to widespread danger and abuse.

As long as similar societal pressures and family dysfunction exist, there is no reason to doubt the numbers of homeless youth will increase. Certainly, the wasted lives and talents of these youngsters represents a tremendous loss of human potential to our society. As the size of the homeless population grows, there will be an even larger underclass of bitter, defeated or angry people in this country. Too, out of loneliness, boredom and need for love, homeless youth are producing another generation of youngsters who they, in turn, will abuse and abandon. The next generation will take their parents' place, swelling future costs of public assistance, loss of taxes and revenues and increasing involvement with the juvenile and criminal justice systems. It is far less expensive to aid homeless youth now than build bigger prisons and institutions to house them and their children in the future.

Preventive services and early intervention with families in trouble is the most efficient and humane way to deal with neglect, violence, substance abuse, inadequate income, housing, illness and other family problems. Emphasis should be placed on stabilizing families, keeping them intact and giving them supports. In the majority of cases, with adequate early intervention, youngsters can be kept in their homes, not removed by the State or thrown out by families.

Homeless youths' needs are hardly extravagant and certainly fall within the inalienable rights of all people; the right to food, shelter and a positive, loving family environment. Since homeless youngsters do not have these needs fulfilled in a family context, it may be necessary to explore independent living facilities, teach them life skills and give them supports for an interim period, while they move toward adulthood.

Homeless youth want desperately to join the mainstream of our Nation. In spite of unbearable life situations, they are not asking for sympathy. They want opportunities to work, be educated, and raise their own families with a sense of safety and security. They want to become involved and take their place as citizens. They need help to open doors, remove barriers and define options. Certainly, it is within this country's capabilities to write a new ending to the saga of "push-outs" and "throwaways" in America and to help make the dreams of homeless youth come true.

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APPENDIX A

[Public Law 93-415, 93d Congress, S. 821, Sept. 7, 1974]

AN ACT To provide a comprehensive, coordinated approach to the problems of juvenile delinquency, and for other purposes

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act may be cited as the "Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974".

TITLE III—RUNAWAY YOUTH

SHORT TITLE

SEC. 301. This title may be cited as the "Runaway Youth Act".

FINDINGS

SEC. 302. The Congress hereby finds that—

(1) the number of juveniles who leave and remain away from home without parental permission has increased to alarming proportions, creating a substantial law enforcement problem for the communities inundated, and significantly endangering the young people who are without resources and live on the street;

(2) the exact nature of the problem is not well defined because national statistics on the size and profile of the runaway youth population are not tabulated;

(3) many such young people, because of their age and situation, are urgently in need of temporary shelter and counseling services;

(4) the problem of locating, detaining, and returning runaway children should not be the responsibility of already overburdened police departments and juvenile justice authorities; and

(5) in view of the interstate nature of the problem, it is the responsibility of the Federal Government to develop accurate reporting of the problem nationally and to develop an effective system of temporary care outside the law enforcement structure.

RULES

SEC. 303. The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare (hereinafter referred to as the "Secretary") may prescribe such rules as he considers necessary or appropriate to carry out the purposes of this title.

PART A—GRANTS PROGRAM

PURPOSES OF GRANT PROGRAM

SEC. 311. The Secretary is authorized to make grants and to provide technical assistance to localities and nonprofit private agencies in accordance with the provisions of this part. Grants under this part shall be made for the purpose of developing local facilities to deal primarily with the immediate needs of runaway youth in a manner which is outside the law enforcement structure and juvenile justice system. The size of such grant shall be determined by the number of runaway youth in the community and the existing availability of services. Among applicants priority shall be given to private organizations or institutions which have had past experience in dealing with runaway youths.

ELIGIBILITY

SEC. 312. (a) To be eligible for assistance under this part, an applicant shall propose to establish, strengthen, or fund an existing or proposed runaway house,

a locally controlled facility providing temporary shelter, and counseling services to juveniles who have left home without permission of their parents or guardians.

(b) In order to qualify for assistance under this part, an applicant shall submit a plan to the Secretary meeting the following requirements and including the following information. Each house—

(1) shall be located in an area which is demonstrably frequented by or easily reachable by runaway youth;

(2) shall have a maximum capacity of no more than twenty children, with a ratio of staff to children of sufficient portion to assure adequate supervision and treatment;

(3) shall develop adequate plans for contacting the child's parents or relatives (if such action is required by State law) and assuring the safe return of the child according to the best interests of the child, for contacting local government officials pursuant to informal arrangements established with such officials by the runaway house, and for providing for other appropriate alternative living arrangements;

(4) shall develop an adequate plan for assuring proper relations with law enforcement personnel, and the return of runaway youths from correctional institutions;

(5) shall develop an adequate plan for aftercare counseling involving runaway youth and their parents within the State in which the runaway house is located and for assuring, as possible, that after case services will be provided to those children who are returned beyond the State in which the runaway house is located;

(6) shall keep adequate statistical records profiling the children and parents which it serves, except that records maintained on individual runaway youths shall not be disclosed without parental consent to anyone other than another agency compiling statistical records or a government agency involved in the disposition of criminal charges against an individual runaway youth, and reports or other documents based on such statistical records shall not disclose the identity of individual runaway youths;

(7) shall submit annual reports to the Secretary detailing how the house has been able to meet the goals of its plans and reporting the statistical summaries required by paragraph (6);

(8) shall demonstrate its ability to operate under accounting procedures and fiscal control devices as required by the Secretary;

(9) shall submit a budget estimate with respect to the plan submitted by such house under this subsection; and

(10) shall supply such other information as the Secretary reasonably deems necessary.

APPROVAL BY SECRETARY

SEC. 313. An application by a State, locality, or nonprofit private agency for a grant under this part may be approved by the Secretary only if it is consistent with the applicable provisions of this part and meets the requirements set forth in section 312. Priority shall be given to grants smaller than $75,000. In considering grant applications under this part, priority shall be given to any applicant whose program budget is smaller than $100,000.

GRANTS TO PRIVATE AGENCIES, STAFFING

SEC. 314. Nothing in this part shall be construed to deny grants to nonprofit private agencies which are fully controlled by private boards or persons but which in other respects meet the requirements of this part and agree to be legally responsible for the operation of the runaway house. Nothing in this part shall give the Federal Government control over the staffing and personnel decisions of facilities receiving Federal funds.

REPORTS

SEC. 315. The Secretary shall annually report to the Congress on the status and accomplishments of the runaway houses which are funded under this part, with particular attention to—

(1) their effectiveness in alleviating the problems of runaway youth;

(2) their ability to reunite children with their families and to encourage the resolution of intrafamily problems through counseling and other services;

(3) their effectiveness in strengthening family relationships and encouraging stable living conditions for children; and

(4) their effectiveness in helping youth decide upon a future course of action.

FEDERAL SHARE

SEC. 316. (a) The Federal share for the acquisition and renovation of existing structures, the provision of counseling services, staff training, and the general costs of operations of such facility's budget for any fiscal year shall be 90 per centum. The non-Federal share may be in cash or in kind, fairly evaluated by the Secretary, including plant, equipment, or services.

(b) Payments under this section may be made in installments, in advance, or by way of reimbursement, with necessary adjustments on account of overpayments or underpayments.

PART B—STATISTICAL SURVEY

SURVEY; REPORT

SEC. 321. The Secretary shall gather information and carry out a comprehensive statistical survey defining the major characteristic of the runaway youth population and determining the areas of the Nation most affected. Such survey shall include the age, sex, and socioeconomic background of runaway youth, the places from which and to which children run, and the relationship between running away and other illegal behavior. The Secretary shall report the results of such information gathering and survey to the Congress not later than June 30, 1975.

RECORDS

SEC. 322. Records containing the identity of individual runaway youths gathered for statistical purposes pursuant to section 321 may under no circumstances be disclosed or transferred to any individual or to any public or private agency.

PART C—AUTHORIZING OF APPROPRIATIONS

SEC. 331. (a) To carry out the purposes of part A of this title there is authorized to be appropriated for each of the fiscal years ending June 30, 1975, 1976, and 1977, the sum of $10,000,000.

(b) To carry out the purposes of part B of this title there is authorized to be appropriated the sum of $500,000.

APPENDIX B

JUVENILE JUSTICE AMENDMENTS OF 1977

[Public Law 95-115, Oct. 3, 1977]

RUNAWAY YOUTH

SEC. 7. (a) (1) Section 311 of the Act is amended—

(A) by inserting in the first sentence "and short-term training" after "technical assistance" and by inserting "and coordinated networks of such agencies" after "agencies";

(B) by inserting "or otherwise homeless youth" immediately after "runaway youth" where it first appears and by striking out "runaway youth" in the third and fourth sentences and inserting in lieu thereof "such youth"; and

(C) by inserting "States," before "localities".

(2) Section 312(b)(5) of the Act is amended by striking out "aftercase" and inserting in lieu thereof "aftercare".

(3) Section 312(b)(6) of the Act is amended by striking out "parental consent" and inserting in lieu thereof "the consent of the individual youth and parent or legal guardian".

(4) Section 313 of the Act is amended by striking out "$75,000" and "$100,000" and inserting in lieu thereof "$100,000" and "$150,000", respectively.

(b) Part B of title III of the Act is amended to read as follows:

"PART B—RECORDS

"RECORDS

"SEC. 321. Records containing the identity of individual youths pursuant to this Act may under no circumstances be disclosed or transferred to any individual or to any public or private agency.".

(c) Title III of the Act is amended by redesigning part C as part D, by redesignating section 331 as section 341, and by inserting after part B the following new part:

"PART C—REORGANIZATION

"REORGANIZATION PLAN

"SEC. 331. (a) After April 30, 1978, the President may submit to the Congress a reorganization plan which, subject to the provisions of subsection (b) of this section, shall take effect, if such reorganization plan is not disapproved by a resolution of either House of the Congress, in accordance with the provisions of, and the procedures established by chapter 9 of title 5, United States Code, except to the extent provided in this part.

"(b) A reorganization plan submitted in accordance with the provisions of subsection (a) shall provide—

"(1) for the establishment of an Office of Youth Assistance which shall be the principal agency for purposes of carrying out this title and which shall be established—

"(A) within the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention in the Department of Justice; or

"(B) within the ACTION Agency;

"(2) that the transfer authorized by paragraph (1) shall be effective 30 days after the last date on which such transfer could be disapproved under chapter 9 of title 5, United States Code;

"(3) that property, records, and unexpended balances of appropriations, allocations, and other funds employed, used, held, available, or to be made available in connection with the functions of the Office of Youth Development

within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in the operation of functions pursuant to this title, shall be transferred to the Office of Youth Assistance within the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention or within the ACTION Agency, as the case may be, and that all grants, applications for grants, contracts, and other agreements awarded or entered into by the Office of Youth Development shall continue in effect until modified, superseded, or revoked;

"(4) that all official actions taken by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, his designee, or any other person under the authority of this title which are in force on the effective date of such plan, and for which there is continuing authority under the provisions of this title, shall continue in full force and effect until modified, superseded, or revoked by the Associate Administrator for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention or by the Director of the ACTION Agency, as the case may be, as appropriate; and

"(5) that references to the Office of Youth Development within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in any statute, reorganization plan, Executive order, regulation, or other official document or proceeding shall, on and after such date, be deemed to refer to the Office of Youth Assistance within the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention or within the ACTION Agency, as the case may be, as appropriate.".

(d)(1) Section 341(a) of the Act, as so redesignated by subsection (c), is amended by inserting immediately before the period at the end thereof the following: ", and for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1978, 1979, and 1980, the sum of $25,000,000".

(2) Section 341(b) of the Act, as so redesignated by subsection (c), is amended to read as follows:

"(b) The Secretary (through the Office of Youth Development which shall administer this title) shall consult with the Attorney General (through the Associate Administrator of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention) for the purpose of coordinating the development and implementation of programs and activities funded under this title with those related programs and activities funded under title II of this Act and under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended.".

List of Supporting Organizations[1]

Organizations endorsing the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (Pulic Law 93-415, as amended in 1977, Public Law 95-115)

American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees.
American Institute of Family Relations.
American Legion, National Executive Committee.
American Parents Committee.
American Psychological Association.
B'nai B'rith Women.
Children's Defense Fund.
Child Study Association of America.
Chinese Development Council.
Christian Prison Ministries.
AFL-CIO Department of Community Services.
AFL-CIO, Department of Social Security.
American Association of Psychiatric Services for Children.
American Association of University Women.
American Camping Association.
American Federation of Teachers.
American Occupational Therapy Association.
American Optometric Association.
American Parents Committee.
American Psychological Association.
American Public Welfare Association.
American School Counselor Association.

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[1] Source: Congressional Record, Senate, vol. 126, No. 82, May 20, 1980, Washington, p. 85606-85607.

American Society for Adolescence Psychiatry.
Association for Childhood Education International.
Association of Junior Leagues.
Emergency Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency Prevention.
John Howard Association.
Juvenile Protective Association.
National Alliance on Shaping Safer Cities.
National Association of Counties.
National Association of Social Workers.
National Association of State Juvenile Delinquency Program Administrators.
National Collaboration for Youth: Boys' Clubs of America, Boy Scouts of America, Camp Fire Girls, Inc., Future Homemakers of America, Girls' Clubs, Girl Scouts of U.S.A., National Federation of Settlements and Neighborhood Centers, Red Cross Youth Service Programs, 4-H Clubs, Federal Executive Service, National Jewish Welfare Board, National Board of YWCAs, and National Council of YMCAs.
National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year Committee on Child Development, Audrey Rowe Colom, Chairperson Committee Jill Ruckelshaus, Presiding Officer of Commission.
National Conference of Criminal Justice Planning Administrators.
National Conference of State Legislatures.
National Council on Crime and Delinquency.
Boys' Clubs of America.
Boy Scouts of the USA.
Child Welfare League of America.
Family Impact Seminar.
Family Service Association of America.
Four-C of Bergen County.
Girls Clubs of America.
Home and School Institute.
Lutheran Council in the U.S.A.
Maryland Committee for Day Care.
Massachusetts Committee for Children and Youth.
Mental Health Film Board.
National Alliance Concerned With School-Age Parents.
National Association of Social Workers.
National Child Day Care Association.
National Conference of Christians and Jews.
National Council for Black Child Development.
National Council of Churches.
National Council of Jewish Women.
National Council of State Committees for Children and Youth.
National Jewish Welfare Board.
National Urban League.
New York State Division for Youth.
Palo Alto Community Child Care.
Philadelphia Community Coordinated Child Care Council.
The Salvation Army.
School Days, Inc.
Society of St. Vincent De Paul.
United Auto Workers.
United Cerebral Palsy Association.
United Church of Christ—Board for Homeland Ministries. Division of Health and Welfare.
United Methodist Church—Board of Global Ministries.
United Neighborhood House of New York, Inc.
United Presbyterian Church, USA.
Westchester Children's Association.
National Federation of State Youth Service Bureau Associations.
National Governors Conference.
National Information Center on Volunteers in Courts.
National League of Cities.
National Legal Aid and Defender Association.
National Network of Runaway and Youth Services.
National Urban Coalition.
Public Affairs Committee, National Association for Mental Health, Inc.

Robert F. Kennedy Action Corps.
U.S. Conference of Mayors.
Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America.
National Youth Workers Alliance.
National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.
National Council of Criminal Justice Planners.
Youth Network Council.
American Bar Association.
American Civil Liberties Union.
National Juvenile Law Center.
National Coalition for Children's Justice.
Children's Express.
Children's Defense Fund.
Coalition for Children and Youth.

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APPENDIX C

AMERICA'S "THROWAWAY" CHILDREN

UNWELCOME IN THEIR OWN HOMES, THOUSANDS OF YOUNGSTERS ROAM THE STREETS. WITHOUT JOB SKILLS, MANY FALL INTO LIVES OF CRIME

A growing share of the 2 million young runaways in America each year turn out instead to be "pushouts."

As divorce becomes more widespread and inflation increases economic stress, more parents are trying to solve their problems by kicking troublesome youngsters out of the house.

The Office of Youth Development of the Department of Health and Human Services, formerly the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, estimates that as many as 28 percent of the current runaway population may have been forced out of their homes by their parents. Some recent examples:

Jim, a 16-year-old, middle-class youth in Ohio, got into a prolonged argument with his father over Jim's refusal to cut the grass. The father ordered him to leave the house and later refused to take him back.

Brenda, also 16 and a Midwesterner, has been involved sexually with her stepfather for several years. When her mother discovered this, she told Brenda to leave and never return.

After Sammy's mother committed suicide, his stepfather remarried. Sammy, then 15, says that he was "kicked out of the house" and his brother, age 17, told to join the army.

An American Indian couple, both alcoholics, decided to split up, and each insisted that the other take responsibility for their 14-year-old daughter, Barb. Neither agreed to keep her, so Barb wound up living in cars and vacant buildings in Minneapolis.

In a stable family in San Francisco, the Latin American father and French mother finally drew the line on a longstanding issue and ordered their 15-year-old son, Jacques, to either "stop being gay" or move out. He moved.

Many thousands of these youngsters are appearing now at the doorsteps of local youth agencies or trying to make it on their own, often with disastrous results. Some wind up disappearing from their families and friends, becoming part of the 17,727 juveniles who are currently listed by the National Crime Information Center as among 22,485 missing persons.

Stephen Rourke, executive director of the National Network of Runaway and Youth Services program in Washington, D.C., puts much of the blame on parents. "It has become fashionable for parents to think of their own needs first," he says. "They separate and don't consider the children's needs. Take care of 'me'—Mommy and Daddy—is their first priority. Movies glorify the man and woman making it on their own. It's the parents who are really running away."

OVERBURDENED PARENTS

Other authorities emphasize economic reasons. Mike Herron, executive director of Head Rest, a runaway shelter in Modesto, Calif., comments: "We are seeing an increase in children running away from home or being pushed out by overburdened parents because the economy contributes to the stress in the family. This is an outgrowth of unemployment and inflation and an economy that forces both parents to work."

The big increase in the nation's divorce rate also gets a good share of the blame, in the view of many social workers. Observes Larry Dye, director of the Office of Youth Development: "When there is reconstitution of a family, when a mother or father takes on a new spouse, the youth often falls through the cracks."

Millions of children are involved, as the ranks of divorced parents continue to grow. Last year, the number of divorces reached 1.117 million, almost twice

the 639,000 of a decade earlier. In the same period, the number of divorces per 1,000 couples has increased from 13.4 to 22.8, according to official sources. In the majority of these divorce cases, children are affected to some degree.

Whatever the reasons, the increase in the number of juveniles who are forced out by their parents appears to be changing the pattern of homeless children in America's big cities. In Boston, a recent study of 147 clients of the Bridge—a runaway-counseling center and shelter for youth—showed that 54 percent had been either thrown out of their homes or abused and forced to leave.

As one counselor puts it: "The young people who leave home prematurely today do so for more serious and compelling reasons than they did even a few years ago. The number of 'Huckleberry Finns' on Boston's streets has decreased sharply, and the flower children have vanished altogether."

TEMPORARY SHELTER

Because of the growing incidents of pushouts and "throwaways," as they are sometimes referred to by city officials, programs that help troubled youth are beginning to focus more on that portion of the runaway population. There are now 164 federally funded programs offering shelter and counseling for homeless youths, and scores of other local projects financed by cities or private organizations set up to do the same. All will provide a place for the youngsters to stay, at least on a temporary basis.

Since few of the pushouts are able to return home, many of the centers try to help these young people find jobs to support themselves. A new pilot employment program, with this aim, is being tried by 17 of the federally assisted runaway-youth projects.

Typical is the Huckleberry House in San Francisco, which deals largely with sexually troubled boys and girls, many of whom were sexually abused by parents or thrown out of their homes because they were homosexual, promiscuous or had become juvenile prostitutes. These youngsters have been placed in a variety of paid positions, such as recreational therapists with local senior citizens, clerks or artists with neighborhood art programs or as aides at a school for the mentally retarded.

In Cincinnati, another youth project group has developed its own "Freedom Factory." The young people custom build ramps for wheelchairs or makes devices known as "grabbers," which arthritis victims use to open doors or button shirts. Such products, among others, are made with materials donated by local manufacturers.

At the Bridge in Boston, many of the throwaways are being paid to counsel troubled youth on the organization's telephone hot line or work with the project's dental and medical van that goes out to reach street youths at night. Those with salable skills are sometimes placed in outside jobs.

Even so, there are signs that many of the growing army of young people who have been cast out of their homes are drifting on their own, unwilling to ask for help from agencies or not knowing that help is available—and often getting deeper into trouble.

PROSTITUTION AND CRIME

Both male and female pushouts frequently wind up in prostitution. As one youth worker tells it: "They turn to the only thing they have—their bodies—and get involved in prostitution when they tire of sleeping in doorways, have no money and no place to go."

In many cases, homeless youngsters get involved in or continue habits with drugs and alcohol, then get into petty crime. This sometimes leads to experimentation on their part with more serious crime, police officials say.

It is a trend that is starting to cause major concern among government, church and agency officials who deal with today's youth and one that promises to get worse before it gets any better.

APPENDIX D

HOMELESS YOUTH PROGRAM INTERVIEW—NATIONAL

PROGRAM, CONTACT, AND DATE

Approximate number of youth contacting program in 1979:
- Percentage of homeless v/s runaways:
- Percentage of males: females:
- Average age of males: females:
- Ethnicity: White Black Hispanic Other
- Place of origin:
  - Local
  - Within State
  - Out of State

Family living style:
- Percentage of intact (i.e. two natural parents):
- Percentage of single (i.e. one natural or one step-parent):
- Percentage of recombined (i.e. natural and step-parent or friend):
- Percentage of youth experiencing following problems within home setting:
  - parental drug abuse:
  - parents' alcohol abuse:
  - parental health problems:
  - inadequate housing:
  - inadequate income:
  - parental unemployment:
  - poor sibling relationships:
  - changes in household within last year:

Parental Neglect and Abuse:
- What percentage of homeless youth coming to your agency have experienced neglect:
  - type of neglect:
- What percentage have been abused:
  - type of abuse:
- What is the average age that abuse or neglect began:
  - birth
  - early childhood
  - latency
  - adolescence

Living situation just prior to contacting Program:
- Percentage from:
  - home
  - relatives
  - friends/street
  - placement—other systems

What percentage have had multiple placements:

Of those coming directly from other systems, what percentage came from:
- foster-care:
- group homes:
- adoptive homes:
- juvenile justice, probation/police:
- mental health facilities:
- facilities for developmentally disabled:

What percentage have experienced institutional abuse (excessive confinement, drug restraint, harsh physical punishment, severe behaviour restrictions):

What percentage have experienced institutional neglect (inappropriate placement, lack of program facilities):

What is the average Educational Performance level of youths:

What percentage of the youths have medical problems:
major types:
What percentage of the youths have had prior counseling (mental health, school, probation, family):
What are the most common reasons given by youth as cause of their homeless condition:
What are homeless youth's expectations for themselves:
What changes has your program experienced in the incidence of neglect and abuse among homeless youth:
What changes has your agency seen concerning the incidence of adolescent suicide:
What changes has your program seen in the homeless youth population:
What are your expectations for these young people:
What recommendations do you have:

PARTICIPANTS COMPLETING PROGRAM INTERVIEW FORM—NATIONAL

Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter, Stillwell, Oklahoma—Martha Vaughan, Executive Director.

COMITIS Runaway/Time-Out Program, Aurora, Colorado—Barry Lawson, Assistant Director.

Diogenes Youth Services, Sacramento, California—Marie Marab, Executive Director.

Interface, Gainesville, Florida—Vicki Jarvis, Executive Director; Connie Hartsock, Counselor.

Place Runaway House, Boston, Massachusetts—Russell Frank, Executive Director.

SAJA, Washington, D.C.—Dodie Butler, Executive Director; Ken Atkinson, Director, Social Services; Sue Harriman, Program Coordinator.

Shelter Runaway Center, Seattle, Washington—Pat Vivian, Executive Director.

The Bridge Emergency Shelter, San Antonio, Texas—Richard Grant, Director, Social Services.

The Shelter, South Bend, Indiana—Bonnie Strycker, Executive Director, South Bend Youth Services Bureau; Mary Poczik, Program Director.

Towner House, Tucson, Arizona—Judy Williams, Executive Director.

Youth Emergency Services, University City, Missouri—Judy Pierson, Executive Director.

Youth in Need, St. Charles, Missouri—Sue Schneider, Executive Director.

APPENDIX E

The following descriptions are of programs, funded under the Runaway Youth Act, which were interviewed in conjunction with this report. The descriptive material was obtained from the Runaway Youth Program Directory, 1979.[1]

ARIZONA

Towner House

Address: 7466 East 18th Street, Tucson, AZ 85711; Chris Servaty, 602–886–5411.

Towner House has maintained a three bedroom urban residence in Tucson since 1974. Up to five youths, aged eight to seventeen, can stay for a maximum period of seven days, so long as parental consent has been procured and the youth is neither violent nor a substance abuser. The home is open for admission at all hours and is adjacent to a bus line. Last year, 275 runaways lived in Towner House for an average stay of five days; minorities, particularly Hispanics, comprised 30 percent of that total. After their departure, 48 percent returned home, 20 percent found alternative housing, and 17 percent moved to the streets. Almost two thirds of the clientele was female, matching a predominantly female staff. The staff of Towner House consists of four professionals with graduate degrees, assisted by nine other employees and nine volunteers. Among the services provided are group, family, and individual counseling. Open Inn, Inc. of Tucson sponsors Towner House and funding is divided between grants from the LEAA and YDB as well as state revenue sharing and United Way donations.

CALIFORNIA

Diogenes Youth Services

Address: 9097 Tuolemne Drive, Sacramento, CA 95826; Marie Marsh, 916–363–0063.

Up to six youths aged 12 to 17 can obtain shelter at Diogenes, a licensed group home located in surburban Sacramento. Provided that the parents approve within 24 hours and the capacity has not been filled, any runaway may receive housing for an unlimited period. Diogenes can be reached easily by bus and will admit clients at any hour. Parent education, group, family and individual counseling are provided to current residents. Aftercare clients may obtain individual, family and group counseling as well as independent living placement, and recreational and educational services. The ten member staff and 40 volunteers, including a consulting attorney, also offer legal services, outreach publicity, and an adolescent maltreatment program. Approximately 65 percent of the runaways that visited Diogenes in 1978 were referred by informal sources, particularly friends, street people, and hotlines. Afterwards, 35 percent of the residents moved back home, 5 percent left for the streets and over 50 percent found housing with friends, relatives, receiving homes, or the police. Diogenes, Inc. sponsors the program. YDB, the county of Sacramento and the United Way contribute to its funding.

COLORADO

COMITIS Runaway/Time-Out Program

Address: 1150 South Chambers Road, P.O. Box 31552, Aurora, CO 80041; Richard E. Barnhill, 303–751–3010.

Up to 12 runaways can be housed by COMITIS in a converted school building in a rural setting. Runaways of any age can come to COMITIS at any hour to find shelter as long as parental permission is received within the first 24 hours. The maximum stay permitted is six weeks. While staying with the program and after leaving, runaways can receive individuals, group, and family counseling as well as parent education, and alcohol and drug use counseling. Other services offered

[1] Runaway Youth Program Directory, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice, August 1979.

by COMITIS include out-patient counseling, 24 hour "Help" lines, and survival skills training. In addition, referrals are made to appropriate community agencies to meet individual needs. YDB provides funds strictly for the runaway program while the entire agency receives funds from CETA, the city government, United Way, local churches, businesses and service clubs, fees-for-services, and fundraising events. COMITIS provided housing for 227 young people during 1978, of whom 144 were runaways. The average length of stay was seven days. Approximately 79 percent of the youths who stayed at COMITIS went to appropriate living situations when they left, while 17 percent returned to the streets, and 4 percent were picked up by the police. (Note: COMITIS is in the process of constructing a new facility. The new address will be 9840 East 17th Avenue, Aurora, CO 80010.)

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

SAJA[1]

Our purpose: SAJA was founded to develop creative alternatives for troubled youth and their families. Over the years SAJA has operated a number of youth service programs, some of which now continue outside the SAJA umbrella. Most of SAJA's programs have developed because of needs felt at the Runaway House, which was founded in 1968. SAJA has always been committed to developing community-based services and to involving the community in its programs.

We believe that, with proper support and the assistance of staff who know the resources available in the city, youth and their families can find ways to resolve their problems without resorting to the Juvenile Court system.

Whenever possible, we try to reunite runaway or homeless youth with their families and to help strengthen the family itself.

SAJA now operates two programs Runaway House and Independence Road. Both the staff of SAJA and its Board of Directors are composed of a cross-section of people from the Washington, D.C. community.

Our staff include educational and vocational counselors as well as crisis intervention workers. We also have aftercare/outreach counseling, art therapy and a 24-hour hotline at the Runaway House.

Runaway House

Address: 1743 18th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20009.

Runaway House is the second-oldest runaway counseling shelter in the country. Founded in 1968, Runaway House was an outgrowth of a local coffee house and was originally sponsored by the Church of the Pilgrims. Its services include:

A 24-hour, 7 days-a-week hotline and walk-in shelter;
Individual, group, and family counseling;
Advocacy for youth with the courts and other social services;
An information resource center for D.C. youth services;
Substance abuse, sexual and personal counseling;
Outreach services for youth still with their families;
Aftercare followup after youth leave the program;
Medical, legal, vocational, and educational resources;
Food, clothing, and shelter.

For more information, or to make a referral, contact Augustus Smith, Program Coordinator, (202) 462-1515.

Independence Road

Address: 1101 West Virginia Avenue NE., Washington, D.C. 20001, entrance: 1006 Florida Avenue NE.

Many older homeless youth lack the basic educational, social, and employment skills necessary to compete in today's job market. Independence Road was created to assist youth in developing these skills and to help them live independently. This program provides youth with:

Educational and job skills training;
Assistance in finding unsubsidized work and housing;
Participation in weekly youth group meetings;
Financial assistance, including scholarships, loans and stipends;
Follow-up support services;
An emphasis on individual responsibility and decisionmaking;
An opportunity to gain the skills and self-respect all young people need.

For more information, or to make a referral, contact Susan Herriman, Program Coordinator, (202) 396-1400.

[1] Material submitted by program.

FLORIDA

Interface

Address: 1128 Southwest 1st Avenue, Gainesville, Fla. 32601; Vicki Jarvis, 904–375–5999.

Up to twelve youths can find shelter at Interface, a residential center located in an urban brick house near the University of Florida. Parents must notify Interface of their consent within 24 hours; in such cases, appropriate 12 to 17 year old youths will be admitted at any time for visits of seven days or less. A local bus line provides transportation adjacent to the facility. Interface maintains a staff of 8 employees, twenty volunteers and two interns; four employees hold master's degrees, while nearly all of the runaway workers have some college experience. Most of their activities involve counseling programs, such as individual, group, family, employment, education, birth control and alcohol/drug use programs. Even after leaving, residents may still receive placement in independent living arrangements, and individual, family, and group counseling. The staff also conducts routine checks on the progress of departed residents and maintains an outreach program into minority communities. Throughout last year, a total of 185 runaways came to Interface, with all finding lodging. Of these, 50 percent returned home and 14 percent migrated to the streets, after the typical stay of two to three days. Begun three years ago, Interface now receives funds from the YDB and the United Way as well as sponsorship from the Corner Drugstore.

INDIANA

The Shelter

Address: 520 North Lafayette Street, South Bend, Ind. 46601; Mary Poczik, 219–284–9396.

Up to ten youths aged between 12 and 21 can obtain group residential housing at the Shelter. Only those youths whose parents do not consent within 72 hours will not receive housing; all other runaways can be admitted 24 hours a day for two week stays. The Shelter lies in an urban neighborhood, easily accessible by bus. Four staff members assisted by volunteers, counsel residents in both individual and group sessions. Other services, ranging from family, educational, and employment counseling to aftercare counseling and independent living placements are provided by the South Bend Youth Services Bureau, the program's sponsor. An outreach program also helps to publicize the Shelter within the community. Nearly 44 percent of the 82 runaways who visited the facility in 1978 were sent by the courts or police. Self-referrals, schools, and welfare department accounted for the remainder. After stays that averaged ten days apiece, 41 percent of the runaways returned home and 19 percent ran back to the streets. The Shelter has treated youths since 1976, relying primarily on YDB grants.

MASSACHUSETTS

Place Runaway House

Address: 402 Marlborough Street, Boston, Mass. 02215; Lillian Jackson, 617–536–4181.

The Place Runaway House operates a group residential center with capacity for 12 youths in a urban, five story brick building. Parental permission must be granted within 72 hours. Youths aged 13 to 17 can stay at the shelter for a maximum of two weeks. The house is well served by public transportation and will admit clients at any hour. At the Place Runaway House, a resident can receive individual, group, family, psychiatric, birth control, alcohol and drug use, and health care counseling, while personal counseling can be obtained after the client's departure. A staff of 13 employees and 18 volunteers also perform informal outreach talks in the community and media, conducts a 24 hour hotline and drop-in counseling, and provides legal services and referrals. Over half of the 750 runaways who visited the center last year had been referred by themselves or friends. Five hundred of these youths lodged at Place Runaway House for an average of six-and-a-half days; most either returned home (34 percent), or found alternate placements (42 percent) after their release, though 15 percent left without resolving their problems. The Place Runaway House has housed runaways since 1967 and is sponsored by Project Place and funded by YDB and Title XX.

MISSOURI

Youth Emergency Service

Address: 6816 Washington Avenue, University City, Mo. 63130; Judy C. Pierson, 314–862–1334.

Youth Emergency Service operates an urban center providing 12 to 18 year olds with short-term shelter. While Y.E.S. ordinarily stipulates that runaways may stay no longer than two weeks, indefinite extensions are granted when appropriate. In 1978 residents averaged 11 nights per stay, though three months visits have occurred in the past. Runaways up to age 17 must furnish parental permission as soon as possible after intake; older clients will be admitted without restriction if the capacity of six boys and six girls has not been filled. The center is accessible to public transportation and available for intake 24 hours a day. Fifteen paid and 45 volunteer workers serve current residents with individual, group, family, and psychiatric counseling plus medical examinations and health care education. After their departure, former residents can receive counseling in individual, family, and group sessions as well as placement in group and independent homes. Volunteer attorneys offer free representation to residents while other staffers conduct talks in community groups, agencies and schools as well as a media outreach campaign. Of the 62 runaways who visited Y.E.S. in 1978, most were referred by municipal authorities such as courts, the police, and agencies, and 43 percent returned home afterwards. Established in 1969, the Y.E.S. program is funded largely by YDB and the United Way, with supplemental aid from Title XX, CETA and the state Criminal Justice Planning Agency.

Youth in Need, Inc.

Address: 529 Jefferson Street, St. Charles, MO 63301; Sue Schneider, 314–724–7171.

Youth in Need can shelter 13 to 17 year olds for up to two weeks in a two story house. Should the parents provide oral consent within 24 hours and written approval within 48 hours, any appropriate runaway will be housed, assuming that the capacity for six youths has not been filled. The center lies in a suburban neighborhood not served by bus. Youth in Need will admit clients at any hour. Once entered, residents can receive individual, group, family, parent education, birth control, health care, and alcohol and drug use counseling. After leaving former clients can obtain individual and family counseling, recreational and educational services, and foster home placements from the 14 paid and 30 volunteer workers. Such activities as workshops, speaker's bureaus, and out-client counseling round out the program. In 1978, Youth in Need accommodated 150 runaways for an average stay of nine days apiece. Of these youths, half were self-referred and 20 percent were sent by courts. Nearly 55 percent of the residents, returned home afterwards while 5 percent resumed running. Grants from YDB, various state agencies, CETA and the United Way help finance the facility, first opened in 1974.

NEW YORK

Covenant House—Under 21

Address: 260 West 45th Street (and 692 Eighth Avenue), New York, NY 10036 Father Bruce Ritter, 212–354–4323.

Under 21 operates an extensive variety of group residential and private foster homes throughout New York City. Within the Times Square area of Manhattan, two short term crisis centers offer one to seven days of shelter to an unlimited number of youngsters. In addition, Under 21 operates ten other group homes in Manhattan and Staten Island. Each home is sex restricted and can accommodate ten runaways at any time. The center requires only that clients be no older than 21. Otherwise, any youth is eligible for an unlimited period of shelter. Both local mass transit and national bus and rail terminals are immediately accesible to the center, which conducts intake 24 hours a day. From the largely black and Hispanic staff of 20 employees and ten volunteers, residents can receive individual, group, family and employment counseling and emergency and regular medical services. Aftercare clients can obtain individual and family counseling, and employment and recreational services. In addition to placements in foster, group or independent housing, streetworkers continuously publicize the program and counsel youths throughout the Mittown area. An estimated 5,000 runaways visited the program in 1977 and 1978, 76 percent of whom were black or Hispanic. Most residents returned to the streets after spending an average of one week at the shelter. Less than 10 percent returned home. Begun in 1969 by the Covenant House, Under 21 relies on YDB and state and municipal grants.

GLIE Community Youth Program (Crash Pad)

Address: 2021 Grand Concourse, Bronx, NY 10453; Claire Harnan, 212–299–1980.

The Crash Pad provides up to ten runaways with shelter in a large ground floor apartment. As long as the parents give their permission within 72 hours any youth younger than 22 can stay for an indefinite duration, although the center attempts to keep visits as short as possible. Located in an inner city neighborhood served by public transportation, the shelder will admit at any hour clients not considered excessively psychotic, violent, or addicted. A staff of 11 employees and three volunteers provides residents with individual group, family, educational, birth control and alcohol and drug use counseling. While the Crash Pad's aftercare services are limited to individual counseling, the GLIE Community Youth program provides a full spectrum of services ranging from counseling to employment, recreational and educational services in addition to group home placements. Staff members publicize the program by school and community presentations as well as circulating written materials. Like the staff, nearly all the Crash Pad's clientele in 1978 were minorities. Approximately 180 runaways visited the facility from July, 1977, to June 1978; many of these returned home (45 percent) or found long-term placement in group homes (18 percent), although 18 percent did go back to the streets. A grant from YDB finances the program, opened in 1972.

Independence House

Address: 503 West 27th Street, New York, NY 10001; Bill Peck, 212–279–7442.

Since 1970 Independence House has provided services to runaway and homeless youth. Housing is provided in a six floor building which can hold 30 residents. The youth must be male and between the ages of 16 and 21. They may stay at Independence House for a minimum of one night and a maximum of six months. Parental permission is not required. Services provided include individual and group counseling as well as employment and educational counseling. Aftercare services include counseling, employment, recreational, and educational services, and aid in establishing independent living. The staff consists of seven full-time and four part-time workers as well as four volunteers, and has a racial mix of half white and half minority. Independence House receives 80 percent of its funding from the New York State Division for Youth and 20 percent from local businesses. During 1978 Independence House provided shelter for 210 homeless youth, of whom 5 percent were runaways. About 80 percent were referred to the program by various social service agencies and 20 percent were self-referred. The average length of stay was two weeks. After leaving the program, 40 percent went back home and 20 percent went to independent living, while 40 percent went back to the streets.

Project Contact

Address: 315 East 10th Street, New York, N.Y. 10009; Madelyn McDonald, 212–533–3570.

Begun in 1975, Project Contact offers shelter for as many as 20 runaways aged 14 to 18. Parents of youths under 16 must notify the center of their consent within 72 hours to secure housing. Runaways who are neither violent nor self-destructive can receive up to 30 days of lodging. Project Contact accepts clients 24 hours daily and is located in a private building five blocks from mass transit. At the facility, ten staffers, 80 percent of whom are black, provide residents with individual, group, family, psychiatric, and alcohol and drug use counseling services. Among the 148 runaways served in 1978, 50 percent were black and 20 percent were Hispanic. While public agencies sent half of the clientele to the program, such informal sources as hotlines and friends referred the other half. Following residencies that averaged 3 weeks per youth, 85 percent of the runaways found alternative placements, 10 percent returned home, and 5 percent moved to the streets. Funds made possible by the New York State Runaway Youth Act solely finance Project Contact.

Runaway Youth Coordinating Council

Address: 139 Jackson Street, Hempstead, N.Y. 11550; Joel Flax, 516–489–6066.

Founded in June, 1976, the Runaway Youth Coordinating Council currently places 13 to 20 year old runaways in foster homes throughout the community. In the near future, a group residential center will be acquired to supplement the foster care program. Intake is available on a 24 hour basis for those under 16 whose parents give immediate approval and for other youths up to 20 not suffering from severe mental, emotional or alcohol and drug abuse disorders. While a total of 15 homes are theoretically available for stays up to two or three weeks, the actual number of runaways who can be housed and their length of stay varies

with daily circumstances. The Council offers residential and aftercare programs featuring individual, family, and group counseling sessions conducted by the seven person staff. In addition, staff members will provide advocacy for those youths appearing in family court and outreach into schools and community agencies. Eighty-eight runaways came to the Council in 1978, most having been sent by community based organizations (41 percent) or themselves (26 percent). After stays averaging three nights per youth, 38 percent of the runaways returned to their families, 34 percent found alternative placements, and 10 percent ran back to the streets. The Council is funded by YDB with further support from its sponsor, the Nassau County Youth Board.

Town of Huntington Youth Bureau Sanctuary Project

Address: 423 Park Avenue, Huntington, N.Y. 11743; Sandra Booth, 516–271–2183.

The Sanctuary Project can place youths 18 and under in any of 31 private foster homes for stays lasting up to two weeks. For runaways younger than 16 parental consent must be provided immediately; otherwise any youth not characterized by substance abuse or extreme emotional insecurity will be admitted on a 24 hour basis. While 32 homes, run by 29 married couples and three single parents are licensed to shelter youths, the actual number of runaways who can be accommodated on any given day varies with the particular availability of families. Six employees, assisted by seven volunteers, offer current and former residents individual, group, family, and parent education counseling as well as placements in independent living. Other counseling services, including employment and educational programs, are provided by the Town of Huntington Youth Bureau, the sponsoring agency. The staff operates a 24 hour hotline and a prevention program taught to parents in schools and assigns adult volunteers to work with youths. Most of the 250 runaways who visited the Sanctuary Project in 1978 were female. Over two-thirds of the runaways returned home and less than 5 percent left for the streets. The Sanctuary Project, opened in 1976, is funded by YDB, CETA, and New York State.

OKLAHOMA

Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter

Address: P.O. Box 913, Stilwell, OK 74960; Martha Vaughan, 918–774–7091.

Opened in 1979, the Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter is a project of the Cherokee Nation Youth Services agency. It provides housing for 12 youths in its shelter located in a small town. Any runaway age 17 or under can be admitted at any time of day or night. Either parental or court permission is required for the youths to remain at shelter. The maximum length of stay is 30 days. Services provided include individual, group, and family counseling as well as parent and health care education, and alcohol or drug use counseling. Aftercare services include counseling and recreation. The shelter's outreach program develops community contacts to identify potential clients and inform the community about the program. The staff consists of 11 full-time members of whom seven are Indian. About half of the shelter's funding comes from YDB and half from Title XX funds.

TEXAS

The Bridge Emergency Shelter

Address: 606 Wilson Boulevard, San Antonio, TX 78228; Mike Lyon, 512–736–4293.

The Bridge Emergency Shelter, an affiliate of Youth Alternatives, Inc., accommodates up to 20 youths in an urban group residential dormitory. Any runaway aged 11 to 17 whose parents agree within 24 hours can obtain 30 days of lodging so long as the 20 bed capacity has not been filled. Housed in a former military academy, close to bus lines, the facility will admit clients around the clock. Among the programs available to residents at the Bridge are individual, group, family and alcohol and drug use counseling, medical examinations, and health care education. The 19 person staff and four volunteers will also conduct individual and family aftercare counseling sessions. Approximately 60 percent of the staff came from minority groups, matching 62 percent among the 1978 clientele. Two hundred fifteen runaways, housed for stays averaging 13 to 17 days, visited the facility in 1978. Of these, 60 percent came from the Probation Department while the Youth Services Project referred another 20 percent. Subsequently, 62 percent of all residents moved to group homes, 25 percent returned home, and 5 percent returned to the streets. Funding for the program, opened in 1976, comes from YDB, USDA, CETA, and the United Way.

WASHINGTON

The Shelter Runaway Center

Address: 4017 Wallingford Avenue North, Seattle, WA 98103; Pat Vivian, 206–632–4065.

The Shelter Runaway Center offers short-term housing for up to six runaways aged 11 to 17. Parental consent must be obtained within 24 hours. Youths can obtain three to five days of lodging in the former single family home; intake occurs 24 hours a day and the center is located in an urban area immediately adjacent to a bus line. Among the services provided by the 20 paid and 25 volunteer workers are individual, group, and family counseling for residential and aftercare clients plus placements in a 30 day foster home program. At selected community sites, outreach workers offer counseling, advocacy, information, and referrals to street youth. Nearly two-thirds of the 270 runaways who came to the Shelter in 1978 were female; they were treated by a staff that features women in 17 out of 20 positions. Almost 54 percent of the clients were referred by themselves or friends, and the welfare department accounted for another 20 percent. Some 10 percent of the residents left for the streets, 45 percent returned home, and the remainder found alternative housing. An affiliate of The Shelter, the Runaway Center is financed by YDB, VISTA, CETA, the Department of Social and Health Services, and local donors. The center opened in 1974.

APPENDIX F

HOMELESS YOUTH PROGRAM INTERVIEW—NEW YORK

PROGRAM, CONTACT, AND DATE

Approximate number of homeless youth contacting agency in one year:
Percentage of males females
Average age of males females
Ethnicity: Percentage of Black Hispanic White
Place of origin:
New York City/State
Out of State (U.S., Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands)
Living situation prior to contacting program:
Percentage from:
home
relatives
friends/street
placement (foster care, etc.)
Parental living style:
Percentage of intact (i.e. two original parents)
Percentage of single parent (i.e. one parent and possible "friend"):
Percentage of step-parents (i.e. natural parent and other active parent):
Educational performance level of youths:
Percentage of youths with medical problems:
major types:
Percentage of youths with legal problems:
major types:
Percentage of youths having had prior counseling (mental health, school, probation, family):
Estimated number of homeless youths city-wide:
Trends or changes (re: homeless youth, societal conditions, attitudes towards youth, problems of youths in general):

PARTICIPANTS COMPLETING PROGRAM INTERVIEW FORM—NEW YORK

Bronx Psychiatric Childrens Center—Dr. Ruth Powell.
Covenant House—Stephen Torkelson.
Department of Correction, City of New York—Alphonso K. Ford.
Division for Youth, State of New York—Gerald Foster.
Educational Alliance, Project CONTACT—Ted Butler, Hilda Blanco, Fred Ross.
Emergency Shelter, Inc.—Rev. Leonard A. Schneider.
Group-Live-In-Experience—Sister Lorraine Reilly.
Hot Line Cares—Rafael Flores.
Independence House—William Peck.
Mayor's Office of Service Coordination, South Bronx Unit—Edward Johnson and David Mitchell.
New York State Council of Voluntary Child Care Agencies—Joseph B. Gavrin.
New York State Department of Social Services, Office of Case Intake and Management—Rolf Mayer.
Runaway Unit, Youth Aid Division, Police Department, City of New York—Officer Warren McGinnis.
Runaway Youth Coordinating Council—Pat Walsh Bambino.
Sanctuary—Sandy Booth.
Spofford Juvenile Center—Maurice Nixon.
The Door—A Center of Alternatives—Julia Glover.
Travelers Aid Society of New York—Victor De Santi.

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEWS

Bronx Gang Intelligence Unit, Youth Aid Division, Police Department, City of New York—Sgt. H. Craig Collins, Supervisor in Command.

Bronx Psychiatric Childrens Center—Dr. Richard Fineberg, Director of Research, Project, Violent Offenders; Dr. Ruth Powell, Chief of Adolescent Services; Virgilio Alamar, Street Interviewer, Counselor.

Claude Brown, Author, *Children of Ham, Manchild in the Promised Land.*

Center for Family Life in Sunset Park, Brooklyn, New York—Sister Mary Paul Janchill.

Cherokee Nation Youth Shelter, Stillwell, Oklahoma—Martha Vaughan, Executive Director.

COMITIS Runaway/Time-Out Program, Aurora, Colorado—Barry Lawson, Assistant Director.

Community Alternative Residence Project (Nassau County)—Phobe Altminer, Counselor.

Community Service Society of New York—Theodore G. Hackman, Project Planner/Project Administrator.

Covenant House (Eighth Avenue and 44th Street—mid-Manhattan)—Father Bruce Ritter, Executive Director: Stephen Torkelson, Supervisor, Under 21.

Department of Correction, City of New York—Alphonso K. Ford, Assistant Commissioner; Dorothy Hudges, Janie L. Jeffers, Harold S. Wildstein, Correctional Institute for Men; Brother Timothy MacDonald, Chaplain, Adolescent Remand Center.

Diogenes Youth Services, Sacramento, California—Marie Marsh, Executive Director.

Division for Youth, State of New York—Gerald Foster, Region IV, Regional Director; Samuel Levine, Director, Centralized Services.

Pyramid House, Bronx, New York—Thomas Wills, Director.

Tryon School, Amsterdam, New York—Frank Filipelli, Clinical Director; Maggie Smith, Coordinator, Cedar Cottage.

Economic Development Council of New York City—Peter Commeau, Research Project, Truancy in Public Schools.

Educational Alliance, Project CONTACT (Lower East Side—Manhattan)—Robert Meltzer, Project Director; Ted Butler, Administrator; Fred Ross, Clinical Director; Hilda Blanco, Research Analyst.

Emergency Shelter, Inc. (St. Mark's Place—Lower Manhattan)—Rev. Leonard A. Schneider, Executive Director.

Group-Live-In-Experience (Bronx)—Sister Lorraine Reilly, Executive Director.

Hot Line Cares (East Harlem—Manhattan)—Rafael Flores, Executive Director.

Independence House (West 27th Street—Manhattan)—William Peck, Executive Director.

Interface, Gainesville, Florida—Vicki Jarvis, Executive Director; Connie Hartsock, Counselor.

Mayor's Office of Service Coordination—South Bronx Unit—Leroy Archible, Daniel Ferguson, Samuel Irizarry, Edward Johnson, David Mitchell, Joseph Washington, Youth Outreach Workers.

Middle Earth Switchboard (Nassau County)—Joel Flax, Executive Director.

Montifiore Hospital, Bronx—Dr. Joel Feiner, Department of Psychiatry.

National Network of Runaway Youth Services—Stephen E. Rorke. Executive Director.

National Runaway Switchboard, Metro-Help, Inc., Chicago, Illinois—Cynthia Myers, Executive Director.

New York State Assembly, Standing Committee on Child Care—Richard Blume, Program Director.

New York State Coalition of Alternative Youth Services—Gus Potter.

New York State Council of Voluntary Child Care Agencies—Joseph B. Gavrin, Executive Director.

New York State Department of Social Services—Office of Case Intake and Management—Rolf Mayer, Program Administrator; Catherine Best, Liaison; Emery Gross, Assistant.

Place Runaway House, Boston, Massachusetts—Russell Frank, Executive Director.

Police Department, City of New York—Captain Robert J. McGowan, All Bronx Precincts.

Runaway Unit, Youth Aid Division, Police Department, City of New York—Officer Warren McGinniss.

Runaway Youth Coordinating Council (Nassau County)—Pat Walsh Bambino, Project Coordinator; Jerry McCaffery, Counselor.

SAJA, Washington, D.C.—Dodie Butler, Executive Director; Ken Atkinson, Director, Social Services; Sue Harriman, Program Coordinator.

Sanctuary (Suffolk County)—Sandy Booth, Project Coordinator.

Shelter Runaway Center, Seattle, Washington—Pat Vivian, Executive Director.

Special Services for Children, Human Resources Administration, City of New York—Beverly Sanders, Assistant Commissioner; Ron Curylo, Special Assistant to Director of Direct Child Care; Emanuel Fox, Director, Field Services; Miriam Lerner, Office of Program Planning; Olivia Tartakow, Deputy Director, Office of Program Planning.

Spofford Juvenile Center, Department of Juvenile Justice—Maurice Nixon, Executive Director.

Suffolk County Youth Bureau—Anthony Romeo, Executive Director.

Alan Sussman, Author, *The Rights of Young People.*

The Bridge Emergency Shelter, San Antonio, Texas—Richard Grant, Director, Social Services.

The Door—A Center of Alternatives (Sixth Avenue and 18th Street—Manhattan)—Julia Glover, M.S.W., Director, S.O.S.

The Shelter, South Bend, Indiana—Bonnie [illegible]ycker, Executive Director, South Bend Youth Services Bureau; Mary Poczik, Program Director.

Towner House, Tucson, Arizona—Judy Williams, Executive Director.

Travelers Aid Society of New York—Victor De Santi, Director, Professional Services.

Ken Wooden, Author, *Weeping in the Playtime of Others.*

Youth Board City of New York—Tom Hemans, Executive Director; Jane Robinson, Coordinator, Runaway and Homeless Youth Programs.

Youth Development Bureau Administration for Children Youth and Families—Caroline Croft, Director, Runaway and Homeless Youth Division.

Youth Emergency Services, University City, Missouri—Judy Pierson, Executive Director.

Youth in Need, St. Charles, Missouri—Sue Schneider, Executive Director.

APPENDIX H

HOMELESS YOUTH CLIENT INTERVIEW—THE DOOR—NEW YORK

Date _____ 19____

First Name Sex Age Ethnicity
Where are you from?
Where are you living now?
How long have you been there?
Who are you living with?
Where else have you been living?
How are you getting your food?
How are you supporting yourself?
(If ever worked, what are problems in getting employment?) (Ever suspended from school?)
How did you hear about this program?
In what ways do you hope this program can help you?
What other things do you think you need?
What else did you hope to find here?
How long have you been on your own?
How do you feel about being on your own?
Is there anything you like about living on your own?
Is there anything you dislike about living on your own?
What do you see for yourself in the future?
What do you think the people in Washington should know to best help you?

APPENDIX I

The following chart represents a comparison of the legal status of youth, including restrictions due to States' rights and parental consents in California, Illinois, New York and Texas.* These four States were chosen for examination because of their wide regional spread and dense populations. It is assumed that in heavily populated States a correspondingly high concentration of youth would be found. The chart serves to illustrate the difficulties homeless youth encounter in their attempts to establish independent living arrangements or alternative lifestyles.

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*Sources: Herbert Wilton Beaser, JD, The Legal Status of Runaway Children. (Report prepared for the Office of Youth Development, Office of Human Development, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.) Washington, D.C.: Educational Systems Corporation, 1975. Alan N. Sussman, The Rights of Young People, An American Civil Liberties Union Handbook, New York, Avon Books, 1977.

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LEGAL STATUS OF YOUTH (AS OF MAR., 1977)

	New York	California	Illinois	Texas
Age of majority, special contracting provisions.	18 (cannot disaffirm medical, surgical, hospital contracts.	18	18	21 (minor 18, or 16 and living apart, maintaining self, managing affairs can petition to have minor status removed).
State's rights to take child into custody if believed to be runaway.	Yes	No	No	Yes.
Juvenile court age	16	18	17	17.
Provisions of public education:				
Age requirement	6 to 16, 6 to 17 in New York City	6 to 16	7 to 16	7 to 17.
Resident of State	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.
Local resident	Yes	No	Yes	Yes.
Aid to families with dependent children:				
Age requirement	Under 21. If 18 and under, must attend high school, college, university, vocational or training course.	Under 21 and unmarried. If 18 and under 21, must attend high school, training program. If in college, must be full-time student with passing grades.	Under 21. If 18 and under must attend high school, college, university, vocational or training course.	Under 21. If 18, must attend high school college, university, vocational or training course.
Payments made on behalf of unborn child.	Yes	Yes	No	No.
Age limitations on child caring agencies	Minimum, none; maximum, 16	Minimum, none; maximum, none	Minimum, none; maximum, 18, (also under 21 with court order).	Minimum, none; maximum, none.
Medical care:				
Legal ability of youth to consent generally to medical care.	Under 18 if married, a parent, or emancipated.	Under 18 if married, in armed services, or 15 and emancipated.	Under 18 if married and/or pregnant	Under 18 if married or emancipated; from 16, if married or emancipated
Legal ability of youth to consent to emergency surgery or medical care.	May be treated if delay in finding parents would endanger youth.	Any age can be treated	Any age may be treated	If under 21 and parents are unavailable, consent must be obtained from grandparent, adult brother/sister, aunt/uncle, legal guardian. Consent must be written and include name of youth, parent, person giving consent, relationship to child, name of doctor/medical facility, nature of care rendered, date.
Legal ability of youth to get medical treatment for pregnancy.	Any age if mature enough to understand nature of treatment.	Any age, unmarried	Any age if married, a parent, pregnant, has parental consent, when failure would be health hazard, when referred by clergy, physician, planned parenthood.	Any age excluding abortion.
Legal ability of youth to obtain treatment for venereal disease.	Any person under 21 without parental consent or knowledge.	Any minor 12 yrs. old	Minor 12 yrs. or over	Any person of any age.
Legal ability of youth to get contraceptive services.	Any age	15 if a parent or potential welfare recipient.	Any age if referred by clergy, physician, planned parenthood, or when failure would be a health hazard.	18.
Legal ability of youth to consent to abortion.	do	Any age	Any age	Any age.

Employment:				
Basic minimum age	16	15	16	15.
Employment certificate required until age.	18	18	16	15 issued by Federal officials.
Nightwork prohibitions	Under 16, 7 p.m. to 7 a.m.; 16 to 18, 12 a.m. to 6 a.m.	Under 18, 10 p.m. to 5 a.m. (12:30 a.m. before nonschool day).	Under 16, 7 p.m. to 7 a.m.	Under 15, 10 p.m. to 5 a.m.
Curfews	Restrictions on certain driving eligibility.	None	Under 18, Saturday and Sunday, 12:01 a.m. to 6 a.m.; weeknights, 11:00 p.m. to 6 a.m.	None.
Marriage:				
Age without parental consent	Male 21, female 18	Male 18, female 18	Male 21, female 18	Male 18, female 18.
Minimum age requiring parental consent.	16—14 (permission of judge also required).	18—16 (parental consent not required if minor was previously married).	18—16 (if younger may obtain court consent if pregnant or parent).	16—14.
Act of marriage as emancipation	Yes	No statute	Yes	Yes.
Age below which youth may not consent to sexual intercourse.	17 female	18 male and female	18 male and female (other partner must be at least 14).	17 female (unless she is at least 14 and not a virgin).
Prohibitions on tobacco and alcohol:				
Tobacco:				
Age	18	18	18	Minor.
Action	Sell	Sell, give or furnish	Sell, buy or furnish	Sell.
Alcohol:				
Beer	18	21	19	18.
Wine	18	21	19	18.
Liquor	18	21	21	18.
Age of youth to vote and serve on State juries.	18	18	18	18.
Age under which sale of pornographic material is prohibited.	17	Minors	18	17.
Age permitted to transact business with a pawnbroker, enter pool halls or bowling alleys:				
Pawnbrokers	16	16 (for junk, tools, metal)	Any age	Any age.
Enter pool halls	15 (younger if with parent and no liquor served).	Any age	do	Do.
Enter bowling alleys	15 (younger if with parent or league and no liquor served).	do	do	Do.
Motor vehicle age requirements:				
Operator's license	17	16	16 and 1 mo	16.
Mandated driver's education	Under 18	Under 18	Under 18	Under 18.
Learner's permit	16	15½	15	15.
Parental consent necessary if under	At 16 (for learner's permit)	18	18	18.

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APPENDIX J

NATIONAL RUNAWAY SWITCHBOARD—1978 STATE BREAKDOWNS

This report is based upon 18,785 of the nearly 125,000 calls received on the National Runaway Switchboard lines during 1978 and is supplemental to the information contained in the "Data Report 1978" published by Metro-Help, Inc., operators of the National Runaway Switchboard service. Copies of this study are available from Metro-Help, Inc., 2210 N. Halsted St., Chicago IL 60614.

Column "A" lists the percentage of calls that originated in the state noted; column "B" lists the percentage of calls tallied by the home state of the youth (runaway, potential runaway, throwaway) in question.

State	A	B	State	A	B
Alabama	1.6	1.8	Nebraska	.9	.5
Alaska	t	.1	Nevada	.7	.5
Arizona	1.3	1.1	New Hampshire	.3	.7
Arkansas	.8	.9	New Jersey	3.5	4.2
California	10.5	10.1	New Mexico	.5	.4
Colorado	1.1	1.3	New York	7.3	7.4
Connecticut	1.3	1.6	North Carolina	2.6	2.2
Delaware	.3	.5	North Dakota	.1	.2
District of Columbia	.6	.4	Ohio	4.7	4.6
Florida	7.4	6.9	Oklahoma	1.0	.8
Georgia	2.4	1.5	Oregon	1.7	1.8
Hawaii	t	.1	Pennsylvania	6.1	5.8
Idaho	.2	.3	Rhode Island	.2	.3
Illinois	5.0	4.9	South Carolina	.7	.5
Indiana	3.8	4.1	South Dakota	.4	.4
Iowa	1.2	1.1	Tennessee	1.5	1.4
Kansas	.7	.7	Texas	6.5	6.1
Kentucky	.9	.8	Utah	.3	.3
Louisiana	1.3	1.0	Vermont	.3	.2
Maine	.6	.7	Virginia	1.8	1.8
Maryland	1.6	2.0	Washington	1.7	2.7
Massachusetts	2.3	2.6	West Virginia	.8	.7
Michigan	3.9	4.9	Wisconsin	2.3	2.5
Minnesota	1.2	1.4	Wyoming	.2	.2
Mississippi	.8	.9	Canada	t	.2
Missouri	2.7	2.5	Mexico	t	t
Montana	.3	.3			

Note: The National Runaway Switchboard is available to young people 24 hrs. a day, 7 days a week, tool free, at 800–621–4000 (in Illinois; 800–972–6004. All business calls are received on 312-929-5854.

Source: National Runaway Switchboard, Metro-Help, Inc. 2210 North Halstad St., Chicago Ill. 60614.
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DATA REPORT 1978

During 1978, Metro-Help, Inc. continued operations on two twenty-four hour a day, seven day a week telephone youth service programs—the Metro-Help Chicago-area switchboard, in service since 1971, and the National Runaway Swtichboard, in service since 1974. Each year, Metro-Help, Inc. releases a study on a representative portion of the telephone calls received on each of these lines during the previous year.

This study is based upon 31,481 of the logged "significant" calls received during 1978. Not all significant calls can be logged—during the busier half of the day (1:00 PM to 1:00 AM Chicago time) calls are coming in on a consistent basis and the volunteers staffing the lines often do not have the time to ask all the questions needed to fill out the appropriate log sheets used for this study. Metro-Help, Inc. estimates it received 70,000 calls on its regional service lines and upwards of 135,000 calls on its National Runaway Switchboard lines in 1978.

"Non-significant" calls are those in which no services were rendered. Prank and "phantom" calls (where the individual says nothing) are also deemed "non-significant."

Metro-Help Regional Service

Comparing the 1978 statistics to those compiled in 1976, the Metro-Help regional service noted a 70 percent increase in significant calls. Furthermore, the average length of these calls increased by 19 percent to nearly 17 minutes each.

The types of problems discussed on the regional lines showed marked changes when compared to 1976 statistics. Child abuse calls increased by 233 percent, an overwhelming growth. Rape related calls increased by 167 percent, and calls involving sexual concerns and emotional concerns increased by 20 percent and 15 percent respectively.

On the down side, pregnancy related calls decreased by 40 percent, medical situation calls decreased by 28 percent and drug related calls decreased by 15 percent.

Whereas the drug related calls did go down, there were marked changes in the types of drugs discussed on the Metro-Help regional lines. Inquiries concerning marijuana and related substances increased by 127 percent, in large part due to the paraquat poisoning scare. Calls concerning the alcohol and psychedelics families of drugs increased 32 percent and 22 percent repectively; the service received 41 percent fewer calls concerning analgesics and 23 percent fewer calls concerning depressants. The percentage of calls concerning stimulants and various drug combinations held steady.

When looking at certain specific drugs, the service noted a 41 percent increase in calls concerning PCP and a 54 percent decrease in calls concerning heroin.

National Runaway Switchboard

Some interesting information comes out of a comparison of 1976 and 1978 National Runaway Switchboard statistics. As with the regional service, the average length of call increased, in this case by 13 percent to a fraction more than 14 minutes each. Calls from youth service agencies across the nation increased by 158 percent, calls from parents of runaways increased by 77 percent and calls from friends of runaways (and throwaways) increased by 65 percent. These various categories still account for a fraction of NRS calls, however, as nearly 77 percent of all significant calls received on these lines in 1978 were from people calling on behalf of their own problems.

METRO-HELP REGIONAL SERVICE—1978

Number of calls in study, 12,696; length of call (minutes) mean, 16.8; mode 5

[In percent]

Age (years):	Caller	Called about
5	0	.2
6	(t)	(t)
7	(t)	.1
8	(t)	.1
9	(t)	.1
10	.2	.2
11	.3	.3
12	.6	.7
13	1.6	1.8
14	2.5	3.1
15	3.9	4.8
16	4.3	5.6
17	6.0	6.9
18	5.1	5.4
19	4.2	4.6
20	4.8	5.0
21	4.3	4.5
22	5.2	5.1
23	5.0	4.9
24	5.7	5.4
25	5.0	4.6
26	4.0	3.9
27	3.6	3.2
28	4.5	4.1
29	2.8	2.7
30	3.3	3.1
31–40	13.8	12.1
41–50	5.6	4.2
51–60	2.6	2.0
61+	1.2	1.2

Age of Caller (mode)	17
Sex of caller:	*Percent*
Female	58.8
Male	41.2
Problems expressed:	
Emotional concerns	33.6
Drug related	19.7
Family problems	12.8
Housing	8.7
Sexuality	7.7
Medical	5.1
Pregnancy related	3.2
Rape	1.6
Child abuse	1.0
Other	6.6
Caller location:	
Cook County	94.4
DuPage County	2.9
Lake County, Ill	1.5
Will County	.6
Kane County	.3
Downstate Illinois	.1
McHenry County	.1
Kankakee County	(t)
Indiana	(t)
Person who called:	
Own problem	82.9
Friend with problem	10.8
Parent	3.2
Agency	3.0
Age of called about (mode)	17
Sex of called about:	*Percent*
Female	56.6
Male	43.4
Types of drugs discussed (groups):	
Alcohol	15.8
Analgesics	13.9
Drugs in combination	13.7
Marihuana	13.2
Depressants	12.1
Psychedelics	11.6
Stimulants	6.5
Inhalents	.9
Other	12.1
Specific drugs discussed:	
Alcohol	15.8
Marihuana	12.9
PCP	7.6
Heroin	7.3
Librium	3.3
Methadone	2.4
LSD	2.1
Alcohol with nonbarbiturates	1.6
Alcohol with barbiturates	1.5
Cocaine	1.5

The NRS heard from more young people who were thrown out of their homes by their parents or guardians. Calls from these "throwaways" increased by 33% during the past two years.

The increase in calls from agencies was mirrored by an increase in calls from young people who were staying with agencies at the time of contact—these calls increased by 59%. More significantly, the National Runaway Switchboard heard from 12% fewer young people who were "on the road" at time of contact.

When breaking down the differences in problems discussed between 1976 and and 1978, one notes a marked increase in child abuse calls on the NRS, as seen also on the regional lines. Here child abuse calls increased by 160%. The only

other category showing a significant increase was sexual concerns (excluding rape and pregnancy); this category registered a 90% increase.

The percentage of calls concerning housing problems decreased by 32%; it is clear runaways contacting the NRS have become more efficient in finding acceptable places to stay. Calls concerning rape held steady during this two year period, medical problems showed a slight decrease as emotional concerns, family difficulties and drug related calls all showed slight increases.

NATIONAL RUNAWAY SWITCHBOARD—1978

Number of calls in study, 18,785

[In percent]

	Caller	Called about
Age (years):		
5	(t)	(t)
6	(t)	(t)
7	(t)	0.1
8	(t)	(t)
9	(t)	.1
10	.2	.2
11	.3	.4
12	1.1	1.3
13	3.9	4.5
14	9.7	11.4
15	18.7	21.2
16	22.8	25.9
17	20.8	21.9
18	8.8	8.7
19	2.1	1.7
20	1.5	1.1
21	1.0	.7
22	.9	.6
23	.8	.4
24	.8	.5
25	.9	.6
26	.6	.4
27	.6	.5
28	.7	.4
29	.4	.2
30	.6	.3
31–40	4.3	1.2
41–50	2.3	.4
51–60	.9	.2
61+	.4	.1
Age of caller (mode)		16
Age of called about (mode)		16

	Percent
Sex of caller:	
Female	63.8
Male	36.2
Sex of called about:	
Female	64.0
Male:	36.0

Length of call (minutes), mean, 14.1; mode, 5

	Percent
Person who called:	
Own problem	76.9
Friend with problem	11.7
Parent/relative	7.1
Agency	4.4
Status of youth:	
Runaway	83.1
Prerunaway	13.3
Throwaway	3.6

Number of days away:	
1–3 days	32.6
4–7 days	19.6
8–14 days	14.8
15–21 days	5.9
22 days–1 month	6.7
1–2 months	7.4
2–3 months	4.2
3–6 months	5.6
6 months–1 year	3.9
1–2 years	1.1
2–3 years	.4
	Days
Mean	48.1
Median	7.2
Mode	1
Problems expressed:	*Percent*
Housing	26.1
Family concerns	23.9
Emotional concerns	23.4
Drug related	4.2
Sexuality	3.8
Pregnancy related	2.9
Child abuse	2.6
Medical	2.1
Rape	.8
Other	10.2
Number of times previously ran away:	
0	53.3
1	15.6
2	9.3
3	6.2
4	4.2
5	2.4
6	1.4
7	1.1
8	.8
9	.6
10	1.4
11 to 20	2.4
21 to 30	.6
31+	.6
Location at time of call:	
With friends	41.9
On the road	36.8
With agency	10.5
With relative	4.1
Living alone	3.9
Other	2.7

For more information concerning Metro-Help, Inc., the Metro-Help regional service or the National Runaway Switchboard, write to the Executive Director, Metro-Help, Inc., 2210 N. Halsted St., Chicago, Illinois 60614, or call the business line, (312) 929–5854.

APPENDIX K

TABLE 10.—*Reasons for seeking services by age*

Reason	Number of youth
4–10 years:	
No communication with parents	61
Emotional neglect	54
Emotional problem—Youth	53
Emotional problem—Parent	42
Parental conflict	42
Physical neglect	35
	30
Sibling rivalry	28
Peer problems	28
Other problem—Youth	28
11 years:	
No communication with parents	61
Parents too strict	42
Parental conflict	42
Emotional problem—Youth	40
	38
Other problem—Parent	33
Emotional neglect	32
Alcohol problem—Parent	31
Emotional problem—Parent	28
Other problem—Youth	26
12 years:	
No communication with parents	430
Parents too strict	213
Emotional neglect	181
Truancy	148
Emotional problem—Youth	147
	125
Sibling rivalry	119
	99
Fears physical abuse	99
Other problem—Parent	85
13 years:	
No communication with parents	1, 355
Parents too strict	858
Truancy	1, 516
Emotional neglect	422
Emotional problem—Youth	364
	347
Sibling rivalry	337
Bad grades	297
Parental conflcit	290
Pushed-out of home	261
14 years:	
No communication with parents	2, 977
Parents too strict	1, 954
Truancy	1, 144
Emotional neglect	788
14 years—Continued	
Emotional problem—Youth	700
Bad grades	636
Sibling rivalry	612
	536
Parental conflict	536
Pushed-out of home	524
15 years:	
No communication with parents	3, 772
Parents too strict	2, 489
Truancy	1, 516
Emotional neglect	990
Emotional problem—Youth	923
Pushed out of home	864
Bad grades	763
	746
	704
Parental conflict	655
16 years:	
No communication with parents	3, 726
Parents too strict	2, 522
Truancy	1, 213
Pushed out of home	1, 198
Emotional neglect	1, 045
Emotional problem—Youth	983
	717
Independent living	692
	685
Parental conflict	657
17 years:	
No communication with parents	2, 178
Parents too strict	1, 504
Pushed out of home	1, 119
Independent living	913
Emotional neglect	663
Truancy	522
	495
Parental conflict	372
	347
Emotional problem	205
18–20 years:	
Independent living problems	266
No communication—Parents	231
Pushed out of home	157
Emotional problem	147
Parents too strict	134
Other problem—Youth	105
Emotional neglect	80
	50
Other problem—Parent	
Girl/boyfriend problem	48

Source: Youth Development Bureau, "Runaway and Other Homeless Youth, Fiscal Year 1978, Annual Report on the Runaway Youth Act" Administration for Children, Youth and Families, Office of Human Development Services, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

TABLE 15: *Reasons for seeking services and reasons for not returning home*

Reasons for seeking services

No communication with parents (14,811).
Parents too strict (9,781).
Truancy (5,114).
Emotional neglect (4,255).
Pushed out (4,205).
Emotional problem youth (4,066).
Bad grades (2,729).
Parental conflict (2,725).
Sibling rivalry (2,709).

Reasons for not returning home

No communication with parents (5,495).
Parents too strict (3,288).
Pushed out of home (2,374).
Emotional neglect (2,204).
Emotional problem-youth (1,811).
Truancy (1,409).
Alcohol problem-parents (966).

NEW YOUTH

Reasons for seeking services

No communication with parents (12,823).
Parents too strict (8,223).
Truancy (4,205).
Emotional neglect (3,543).
Pushed out (3,337).
Emotional problem-youth (3,216).
Bad grades (2,367).
Sibling rivalry (2,281).
Parental conflict (2,225).

Reasons for not returning home

No communication with parents (4,282).
Parents too strict (2,598).
Pushed out of home (1,777).
Emotional neglect (1,636).
Emotional problem-youth (1,336).
Truancy (1,078).
Alcohol problem-parents (729).

REPEAT YOUTH

Reasons for seeking services

No communication with parents (2,488).
Parents too strict (1,568).
Truancy (909).
Pushed out (868).
Emotional problem-youth (850).
Emotional neglect (712).
Independent living (543).
Sibling rivalry (428).

Reasons for not returning home

No communication with parents (1,258).
Parents too strict (6,901).
Pushed out (597).
Emotional neglect (528).
Emotional problem-youth (475).
Truancy (331).
Emotional problem-parent (213).
Alcohol problem-parent (207).

Source: Youth Development Bureau, Runaway and Other Homeless Youth, Fiscal Year 1978, Annual Report on The Runaway Youth Act, Administration for Children, Youth and Families, Office of Human Development Services, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Appendix L

Preventing Child Maltreatment: Begin With the Parent

Study Results: Maltreatment and Alcohol

"When my father gets drunk, he beats me. My mother says she will do something about it, but she never does. When you get slung against walls, stepped on, then just plain beat, it's not funny. He tease me, the way I look. I can't help it if I'm ugly. I can't get along with my parents. I thought about killing myself but I scared my dog won't eat."

This quote is from a letter received by Dr. Ernest Noble, former Director of the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, which highlights the dramatic relationship between drinking abuse and child maltreatment.

Because problem drinking is the most identifiable cause of family stress resulting in child maltreatment, we have devoted a special section of this study to early identification and intervention with the at-risk alcoholic parent.

The Washington Center for Addictions in Boston indicated that physical child abuse occurred in 13 percent of the families with an alcohol or opiate-addicted parent. Dr. Henry Kempe, a child abuse specialist, has determined that alcohol plays a part in one-third of these abuse cases.

The Washington Center also found significant emotional neglect in its study of children from alcoholic homes. For example, because the alcoholic parent was frequently put out of the house, the children feared their own eviction. "Many of the children's drawings of the family symbolically included a pet that the mother had gotten rid of because he was unmanageable or dirty."

Other studies on children of alcoholic parents have found them withdrawn (since they can never be sure what behavior will be punished by their mercurial alcoholic parents), unable to concentrate, and running a high risk of developing emotional and behaviorial problems as adults.

Dr. Douglas J. Besharov, Director of the Office of Child Development, National Center of Child Abuse and Neglect, comments that child maltreatment is often a symptom of deep personal, psychological and social dysfunction, and that alcoholism in many people can be characterized in the same way.

Margaret Hindman, formerly of the National Clearinghouse for Alcohol Information, indicates that: "Child abusers are most often described as having a low frustration tolerance, low self-esteem, impulsivity, dependency, immaturity, severe depression, problems with role reversals, difficulty in experiencing pleasure, and lack of understanding of the needs and abilities of infants and children." Most of these same characteristics are also attributed to alcoholics.

With the relationship between drinking and child-caring problems having been clearly established, professionals dealing with parents on an alcoholism problem should also be identifying and intervening in the unexpressed child maltreatment problem. Similiary, when a worker is dealing with a child maltreatment problem, the unexpressed drinking problem should also be identified and dealt with. Neither, however, is occurring.

"Child abuse is a possibility rarely mentioned even by those providing services to children of alcoholic parents," comments Margaret Hindman, referring to alcoholism professionals. Dr. Besharov, meanwhile, with respect to child care workers, says: "Despite the association between child abuse or neglect and alcoholism, there is seldom an effort to address the alcohol problem specifically in dealing with child abuse, even when the focus is on rehabilitation of the family."

The CAS–NYCA study similarly found that the present condition exists because alcoholism counselors lack the skills and knowledge to deal with child care problems, and professionals in the area of child welfare do not know how to identify and motivate alcoholics and their families into treatment.

The difficulty of performing this task is also a reason for its lack of practice to date. The crises of alcoholism and/or child abuse are severe, requiring the counselor to confront the parent over an act which the public stigmatizes. This

creates tension, denial and rationalization in the parent which the therapist must overcome. To also confront the just identified alcoholic or abusing parent, who is emotionally fragile, on the unidentified abuse or alcoholism, can be expected to increase the tension between therapist and client.

It is difficult for the worker to know for sure when the client is stable enough while still in alcoholism treatment to begin to deal with the child-rearing problems. The tendency then is to put off acting on the suspicion of maltreatment. The alcoholism worker also worries about a counselor from another discipline becoming involved with his client.

"Treat the alcoholism first," is the accepted therapeutic model used by alcoholism clinics, on the theory that the marital, sexual, financial and other problems either will disappear after the drinking ends or can best be treated then. The progressive social and physical deterioration caused by alcoholism must be stopped quickly; otherwise, the ability to solve other life problems will not even exist.

However, where a potential for child abuse exists and can explode at any time, possibly inflicting permanent physical and emotional damage, can be the therapist "hold off"? And because of alcoholism's progressive deterioration, can the child welfare counselor seeking a permanent solution before it is "too late" avoid dealing with a parent's drinking problem?

The following cases from our study illustrate these points:

One involved a child who at nine months fractured her arm when dropped by addicted parents. Just after her first birthday, she "walked into a plate" thrown by her father at her mother, and lost her eye. The child is now 13. During these 13 years, her parents have been in and out of rehabilitation programs. Yet no facility has intervened with the parents over their child-coping problem.

In another case, twins, age 12, were periodically beaten by their alcoholic father, who was in and out of hospitals. The beatings started soon after birth, the mother says. Despite the many warning signs displayed by these parents, no counseling or referral help on their parenting problem was offered by the alcoholism clinics.

In a different case, the alcohol-abusing parent admitted to professionals: "My father is an alcoholic. I am afraid I will turn into a parent like him. He was mean to my mother and did not show much love." This one statement contains several warning signs. But again, no assistance was offered the parent about child rearing.

Alcoholism is called a "family illness." Likewise, it is the family in crisis, under stress, that is credited as the basic cause of child maltreatment. In short, neither a parent's alcoholism or child-raising problem can be solved unless the entire family is treated.

Our conclusion, therefore, is that we train and educate professionals in the fields of child care and alcoholism on how to identify and intervene with the one problem at almost the same time or soon after they confront the parent on the other issue. Larger agencies in the child care and alcohol fields also should have a trained specialist available to work with these identified parents.

A worker who uses the alcoholism crisis as a way for early intervention in a problem of child care may find less resistance than expected. In almost all of the 11 cases of alcoholism and child maltreatment in the CAS-NYCA study, the parents, during the 60-to-90-minute counseling interviews, dropped hints—"concerned," "sad," "didn't want to"—about what they were doing to their children. This ambivalence also has been found in prior studies.

Despite the advanced alcoholism, for example, of one mother—on several different occasions she severely burned herself to attract the attention of her boyfriend—she was able to say: "It is not the things I do, but the things I don't do. I didn't even bring my daughter to school on her first day there."

With 10 million alcoholics in the United States, 400,000 in New York City, the failure to use the confrontation over problem drinking as a way to also identify and intervene in child maltreatment is one society cannot afford. Similarly, child care agencies will never achieve the "correct" solution of a stable family for every child, unless they stop avoiding the drinking abuse issue. Workers in both fields need to realize that by not treating the unidentified problem, they are letting a time bomb walk out of their offices.

APPENDIX M

MEETING THE NEEDS OF MISTREATED YOUTHS

(By James Garbarino)*

"The abuse of adolescents is a problem endemic to the institutional and cultural structure of American life and is not an ephemeral phenomenon. The author presents information and theories concerning such abuse as a basis for offering the best strategies to meet the needs of these youths."

The current medical, psychological, and social welfare establishments have delineated the mistreatment of children and adolescents as a discrete social problem. As well-defined public issues, the abuse and neglect of children are young, dating from the early 1960s. Moreover, only since the 1970s have social service professionals and the public "discovered" the abuse and neglect of adolescents, although teenagers as well as children have always been subject to mistreatment by their parents, guardians, and custodians.[1] Because of the growing concern for mistreated adolescents, social service professionals now seek to broaden the definition of mistreatment. They have raised the following question: Under what circumstances and at what stage of the life cycle is one protected from mistreatment by law, custom, and practice?

This article atempts to bring together the factual information and theories concerning the mistreatment of adolescents as a basis for offering the best strategies to meet the needs of these youths, aged 12–18. Although this article is not a review of the literature on the mistreatment and neglect of children (under age 12), it refers to this literature as a basis for contrasting child abuse and neglect with the etiology and dynamics of adolescent abuse. It not only deals with the various patterns of behavior by adults that harm teenagers but also discusses the mistreated adolescent's need for social services. In this article the definition of mistreatment includes physical assault, coercive sexual relations, and rejection. Although the evidence on sexual abuse is full of contradictory and inconsistent messages, it is clear that when sex is coerced, it qualifies as abuse. Similarly, when emotional privation (rejection) is imposed, it has deleterious developmental consequences.[2] When sexual and emotional "misuse" do not fall into this definition of abuse, they are not discussed in this article.

Factual information about the mistreatment of youths is underdeveloped. Because of this, social service professionals tend to adopt their own hypotheses when responding to the increasing public pressure to do something for and about these teenagers and their families. The relatively new awareness of adolescent abuse affords these professionals the chance to avoid some of the false starts, blind alleys, and misconceived programs that have plagued efforts to understand and deal with child abuse and neglect.

Patterns of abuse

The mistreatment of adolescents is a problem endemic to the institutional and cultural structure of American life, not an ephemeral phenomenon. Patterns of abuse can be divided into the following categories:[3]

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[1] For discussions of how the abuse and neglect of adolescents were "discovered," see Eli Newberger and Richard Bourne, "The Medicalization and Legalization of Child Abuse," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 48 (October 1978), pp. 593–607; and Stephen Pfohl, "The Discovery of Child Abuse," Social Problems, 24 (February 1977), pp. 310–323.

[2] See Ronald P. Rohner, "They Love Me, They Love Me Not: A Worldwide Study of the Effects of Parental Acceptance and Rejection" (New Haven, Conn.: Human Relations File Press, 1975).

[3] Ira Lourie, "Family Dynamics and Abuse of Adolescents," paper presented at the Second International Congress on Child Abuse and Neglect, London, England, Sept. 13, 1978; and Monica Mahan, "Differential Diagnosis and Treatment Planning in Working with Adolescent Abuse and Neglect," pp. 1–25, unpublished manuscript, Youth in Crisis, Inc., Chicago, 1978.

Mistreatment that begins with the onset of puberty.

Mistreatment that represents a change in the quality or form of punishment (for example, from slapping to punching), a change in parental affect (from tolerance to rejection), or a change in sexual conduct (from normal kissing to genital fondling).

Mistreatment that is present only when the child is in the "terrible twos," and recurs when the youngster becomes an "ornery adolescent."

Mistreatment that merely continues a pattern of abuse begun in childhood.

Each pattern may represent special needs of clients and thus challenges to social service professionals. The first three imply the existence of a conflict between parent and adolescent over the youth's behavior. The fourth pattern seems to be a residual category that will gradually disappear now that early identification and treatment of child abusers are widespread, although this assumption may be unfounded because the rate of "cure" reported by those who use conventional and innovative treatment approaches ranges between 30 and 70 percent.[4] It appears that because many cases of child abuse are chronic, a pattern of abuse continues during the youngster's adolescence. Furthermore, as social service agencies improve their case-finding system for mistreated adolescents, it is likely that more youths will be placed in institutional facilities in which they are at risk for further mistreatment. To prevent this risk, social service professionals must devise and implement ways to serve these youth without institutionalizing them.

According to Garbarino and his colleagues, the American Humane Association has reported that adolescents are the victims in approximately one-third of the abuse cases reported to state central registries.[5] Moreover, the data gathered by these researchers support the view held by others that the mistreatment of adolescents is not so strongly related to socioeconomic deprivation as is the mistreatment of children. This view suggests that the mistreatment of adolescents is about as prevalent in affluent areas as it is in impoverished areas. In the latter, infants and young children are more likely than are adolescents to be mistreated because of the frustration and family isolation related to social and economic stress. However, the abuse of adolescents, compared with child abuse, seems to be less a correlate of social class.

In another study, Lourie has found that 50 percent of the mistreated cases in an affluent county involve adolescents.[6] However, percentages reported for a more representative metropolitan midwestern county almost replicate the national data presented by the American Humane Association.[7] All such percentages are suspect, of course, because in the early stages of developing a case-finding system, it is easy to influence the number and pattern of reports by conducting specialized and intensive programs aimed at making professionals and the public aware of adolescent abuse, as has been the case in the area of sexual abuse.

Most epidemiological issues concerning the mistreatment of adolescents are moot. Finding answers will require the same investment in research that has been devoted to documenting incidence patterns for the mistreatment of children. All these issues must be addressed in the context of what is known about the epidemiology of domestic violence and the adequacy of health care. Straus has found that some 15 percent of families in a nationally representative sample engage in some "serious violence" (punching, kicking, or assaulting with an object or a weapon).[8] In addition, lower socioeconomic groups have a substantially higher rate of domestic violence than do upper socioeconomic groups. In relation to the health care of adolescents, experts who convened at a recent conference drew parallel conclusions regarding such care:

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[4] See "Evaluation of Child Abuse and Neglect Projects," 1974–77 (Berkeley, Calif.: Berkeley Planning Associates, 1978); and Richard Herrenkohl et al., "The Repetition of Child Abuse: How Frequently Does It Occur?" paper presented at the Second International Congress on Child Abuse and Neglect, London, England, Sept. 12, 1978.

[5] James Garbarino, Alan Potter and Barbara Carson, "Comparing Adolescent Versus Child Abuse Cases," pp. 1–17. Unpublished manuscript, Center for the Study of Youth Development, Boys Town, Nebr., 1979.

[6] Lourie, op. cit.

[7] James Garbarino and Barbara Carson, "Comparing Child and Adolescent Abuse Cases." Unpublished manuscript, Center for the Study of Youth Development, Boys Town, Nebr., 1979.

[8] Murray Straus, "Family Patterns and Child Abuse in a Representative American Sample." Paper presented at the Second International Congress on Child Abuse and Neglect, London, England, Sept. 12, 1978.

A substantial proportion of teenagers need medical attention because of socially linked health problems such as veneral disease, and these problems are associated with social and economic impoverishment.[9]

Child and adolescent abuse

American ambivalence about violence is well known. On the one hand, people respond negatively to "crime in the streets," which is usually front-page news when it involves violent assault. Yet films, magazines, television, and sports are saturated with violence. On the other hand, more than 90 percent of American families use physical force to punish children.[10] Yet Americans express outrage about child abuse. Furthermore, although most people abhor violence directed at innocent and helpless infants, many are willing to accept violence directed at wives by their husbands. Efforts to deal with the scientific, legal, and service issues surrounding the mistreatment of adolescents are often confounded by the fact that this form of domestic violence falls somewhere between child abuse and wife battering on the continuum of public and institutional acceptability.

Infants are viewed as innocent and defenseless, and teenagers as provocative and capable of taking care of themselves. Adolescents, like wives, sometimes engage in retaliatory assault. For example, one child protective services agency reports that some 20 percent of its cases involving adolescents are brought to its attention by an adolescent's assault on a parent.[11]

Studies of adolescents who murder their parents often reveal a history of serious abuse in the youths' background.[12] Like abused wives, mistreated adolescents usually face a difficult time receiving justice in the courts and services if their cases reach law enforcement and judicial agencies. Their status as minors does not permit them to choose such options as running away to escape mistreatment. If they leave home, mistreated adolescents are likely to be labeled by those in the court system as "status offenders" or as delinquents. They are most likely to come to the public's attention because of their own antisocial behavior, for example, running away or truancy. In addition, because many social service professionals believe that the judicial system is partial to parents, they prefer to seek a "person-in-need-of-supervision" petition rather than a maltreatment petition.[13] The former petition seeks to "prosecute" the victim and in many jurisdictions leads to incarceration; the latter seeks to prosecute the perpetrator. Given the current state of services to youngsters in foster care and to status offenders receiving institutional care, neither form of care seems appealing as a developmentally enhancing experience. Mistreated youngsters need assistance if they are to overcome the effects of their experience. However, as "criminals" they are less likely to receive that assistance than they would as victims.

Another way in which the mistreatment of adolescents differs from child abuse and more closely resembles wife battering lies in the goals and dynamics of case management and treatment. In the overwhelming majority of child abuse cases, the overt treatment goal is to return the child to a healthy familial environment; in many cases involving adolescents, a more modest goal is to "stabilize" and "maintain" the teenager outside the home. Many social service professionals believe that mistreated adolescents may be better off in the short run, and even in the long run, if these youths have a safe and developmentally enhancing alternative to strife-torn homes. The author contends, however, that adolescent victims should be involved in case-management and placement decisions because they need to have a sense of control over their destiny and because they can actively resist decisions and placements that are imposed on them.

Why do so many cases involving mistreated adolescents reveal behavioral problems on the part of the youngster? By and large, youths in trouble are

[9] Institute of Medicine, Issues in Adolescent Health, preliminary conference report (Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1978); and Hillary Millar, Approaches to Adolescent Health Care in the 1970s (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1975).

[10] Straus, op. cit.

[11] Bruce Fisher, personal communication. Conference on Adolescent Abuse and Neglect, Monterey, Calif., October 1978.

[12] See James Duncan and Glen Duncan, "Murder in the Family: A Study of Some Homicidal Adolescents," American Journal of Psychiatry, 127 (May 1971), pp. 1498–1502; Charles H. King, "The Ego and Integration of Violence in Homicidal Youth," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 45 (January 1975), pp. 134–145; and Emanual Tanay, "Adolescents Who Kill Parents—Reactive Parricide," Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 7 (December 1973), pp. 263–277.

[13] See Lis Harris, "Persons in Need of Supervision," New Yorker, August 14, 1978, p. 55ff.

youths who have been hurt. At least three factors conspire to produce the relationship between mistreatment and problem behavior.

First, in abusive families there is a dearth of positive social interaction and a lack of relationships with others outside the home. Children in these families learn to be socially and interpersonally deficient through the experience of being mistreated. Moreover, some studies document the existence of a strong relationship between the mistreatment of children and delinquent behavior; for example, Alfaro has reported that nearly 70 percent of delinquents have a history of reported mistreatment.[14]

Second, child abuse often leads to institutional care, which in itself tends to cause problem behavior. Although there are many capable and dedicated foster parents, the foster care system is a major social problem in its own right. With the number of foster placements experienced by children in care averaging about five and the number of years in care averaging about seven, it is little wonder that many children fed into the system emerge from it as psychosocially impoverished teenagers. Moreover, because of the lack of interest among foster parents in dealing with adolescents, teenagers are more likely than are young children to be placed in institutions.

Third, many adolescents who run away to escape mistreatment in the home engage in prostitution, use illicit drugs, and become vagrants. As a result of such illegal acts, they tend to come into contact with law enforcement authorities. A recent study conducted in Arizona has compared the "crimes" committed by adolescents with a known history of mistreatment with crimes committed by those without such a history.[15] "Escape" offenses (running away, truancy, and the like) accounted for 35 percent of the crimes by youngsters coming from homes in which abuse was present, "aggression" (assault) for 5 percent, and offenses such as theft for 60 percent. For the comparison group, escape offenses accounted for only 18 percent of the offenses, aggression for 5 percent, and other offenses for 77 percent. These data are consistent with the experiences of youth service agencies around the country. In addition, the Arizona study has found a link between mistreatment and suicide among adolescents.

Another study conducted by Grisso has revealed that adolescents who expressed a low desire to be released from a state correctional youth camp and who returned home were likely to have a history of mistreatment in the home.[16] These youths dealt with difficulties encountered in the school and home by withdrawing from them.

This is not the whole story, however. According to researchers who developed a questionnaire to identify adolescents who would be high-risk parents, mistreated youths lack life-management skills and reveal attitudes and beliefs about child rearing that make them likely to become involved in mistreating their own future children.[17] Because of this, the long-term goal of youth service agencies in serving mistreated youths is to help these adolescents develop the life-management skills and concepts of family life that will prevent them from becoming the next generation of troubled parents involved in the mistreatment of children.

Can needs be met?

Can child protective services meet the needs of mistreatd youths? A recent nationwide review of services for abused adolescents has concluded that "to a large extent, child protective agencies are not providing adequate protective services for adolescent youths."[18] Workers in these agencies are usually not trained to deal with adolescents and often do not view serving them as part of the primary mission in child protective services. And because most of the workers are over-

[14] See James Garbarino, "Child Abuse and Juvenile Delinquency: The Developmental Impact of Social Isolation," in Yvonne Walker, ed., "Exploring the Relationship between Child Abuse and Juvenile Delinquency" (Seattle, Wash.: Northwest Institute for Human Services, 1978); and Jose Alfaro, "Summary Report on the Relationship between Child Abuse and Neglect and Later Socially Deviant Behavior" (New York: Select Committee on Child Abuse, 1978).

[15] F. G. Bolton, J. W. Reich, and S. E. Gutierres, "Delinquency Patterns in Maltreated Children and Siblings." Unpublished manuscript, Arizona Community Development for Abuse and Neglect, Phoenix, Ariz., 1977.

[16] J. Thomas Grisso, "Conflict about Release: Environmental and Personal Correlates among Institutionalized Delinquents," Journal of Community Psychology, 3 (October 1975), pp. 396–399.

[17] Steven Bavolek et al., "The Development of the Adolescent Parenting Inventory (API): Identification of High Risk Adolescents Prior to Parenthood." Unpublished manuscript, Department of Special Education, Utah State University, Logan, Utah, 1977.

[18] Bruce Fisher and Jane Berdie, "Adolescent Abuse and Neglect: Issues of Incidence, Intervention and Service Delivery," Child Abuse and Neglect, 2 (Summer 1978), p. 173.

burdened with cases involving infants and young children, they elect to serve the young children rather than adolescents. In many agencies there is little or no provision for involving teenagers in the decision process of case management and placement. Moreover, the "alternative" agencies (for example, runaway houses) that deal with troubled adolescents often do not have effective working relationships with child protective agencies. A coordinator who specializes in dealing with cases involving mistreated adolescents may be essential. Agencies can provide specialized training in the area of adolescent abuse by reorganizing the tasks of existing staff members or by obtaining an increase in regular funding to train personnel.

Are special-purpose programs for mistreated adolescents needed? The reaction against single-purpose agencies and categorical grants is well founded in the area of abuse and neglect of adolescents. Networks of services, such as youth hotlines, and comprehensive youth-serving agencies appear to be the answer. These networks and agencies provide services to the mistreated adolescent who may need to receive help initially as a runaway, as a school failure, as a gynecological patient, or in some other role that can be a manifestation of mistreatment. To permit effective identification and referral of abuse-related problems, youth hotlines should remain generic in scope while providing specialized training in adolescent abuse. In addition, the training of front-line workers who offer services to adolescents is probably wiser than the creation of new agencies to deal with these youths. Furthermore, because study findings reveal that the judicial system is a major stumbling block to meeting the needs of mistreated youths, programs should educate lawyers, prosecutors, judges, and other court personnel about their responsibilities in this matter and stimulate more effective "watchdog" activities by the mass media and advocacy groups."[19]

Can the schools help? Any solution to the problems of mistreated youths must involve the schools. Schools are the primary source for reporting the mistreatment of children between the ages of 6 and 18, and their effectiveness as a reporting source has improved. However, despite the work of such groups as the Education Commission of the States, many schools offer few services to these youths. Indeed, as the Children's Defense Fund reports, most children who are not in schools are out because the schools cannot or will not deal with them."[20] These adolescents are often victims of neglect and may have been abused. Schools can play a part in identifying, preventing, and treating abuse and neglect. For example, they can provide parent and "life-management" education, improve adolescents' awareness of abuse and neglect, and help youngsters in foster or institutional care become integrated into the social and academic life of the classroom. Few schools cope adequately with these challenges. For many, abuse and neglect are either taboo topics or are tacitly accepted as part of the normal routine of family life.

Given the manifest concern of many individual teachers and administrators, school personnel should be included in a community's network of services for helping mistreated youths. The current pessimism in many circles about the potency and good intentions of schools, although well founded in many cases, should not lead to the exclusion of school personnel from the helping process. The assistance of teachers and administrators is essential if mistreated teenagers are to acquire social behavior of which society approves.

Where do runaway houses fit into the picture? One-third to one-half of the clientele in most runaway houses are adolescents who have been sexually and physically assaulted.[21] When teenagers run away to escape domestic violence, sexual exploitation, or rejection, they run a high risk of being victimized or becoming involved in delinquent acts unless they try to obtain shelter in secure runaway houses. Because these youngsters often require special management, runaway houses and group homes need well-trained staff. Programs that have adopted the "Teaching-Family Model" provide an approach that gives the adults in charge of group homes the strategies and tactics needed to stabilize behavior and teach social skills."[22]

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[19] See James Garbarino, "Investigating Child Abuse and Neglect." Paper presented at the National Conference of the Investigative Reporters and Editors Association, Boston, June 1979.

[20] Children's Defense Fund, "Children Out of School in America" (Washington, D.C.: Washington Research Project, 1974).

[21] Fisher and Berdie, op. cit.; and U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Runaway Youth: A Status Report and Summary of Project," report of the Intradepartmental Committee on Runaway Youth (Washington, D.C.: National Technical Information Service, NTIS PB 255836, 1976).

[22] Dennis M. Maloney, Gary D. Timbers, and Karen B. Maloney, "BIABH Project: Regional Adaptation of the Teaching-Family Model Group Home for Adolescents," Child Welfare, 56 (January 1977), pp. 787–796; and Montrose M. Wolf et al., "Achievement Place: The Teaching-Family Model," Child Care, 5 (Spring 1976), pp. 92–103.

Can teenagers play an active role? By and large, self-help groups for victims, cadres of trained volunteers to act as peer counselors in adult-run service programs, and programs aimed at making teenagers aware of abuse are all effective in dealing with the problem of child abuse and neglect, especially the mistreatment of adolescents.[33] Moreover, the strengthening of links between peer groups and concerned adults can lead to a better flow of information relevant to prevention, case identification, and even "treatment." These peer networks can become an important adjunct to youth-serving institutions, be they conventional health programs or "alternative" services such as Face-to-Face in St. Paul, Minnesota, and The Door in New York City. They encourage a greater reliance on volunteers to handle the more manageable cases involving mistreated youths while saving professional expertise for the most intractable cases. Innovative use of volunteers in all facets of such cases is an idea whose time has come. For example, one promising innovation introduced in California is the use of trained volunteers as lay advocates for mistreated youths.

Conclusion

The history of services for youths has been dominated by a debate over the relative importance of control versus support in those programs. This is a false and misleading dichotomy. Successful programs have recognized that young people need a healthy mixture of order and nurturance. The two go hand in hand in a well-run program, a healthy family, and a society that knows how to care for its youths. Current efforts to deal with the mistreatment of youths will succeed to the degree that social service professionals recognize the need to link youths and their families to support systems that provide both nurturance and feedback.

Youths in trouble are often youths who have been hurt. The hurt may be unintentional, or it may be calculated by individuals and institutions that inflict their problems on the youngsters they serve. Rearing a child, especially in early adolescence, is a challenge. However, the difficulty of that challenge cannot excuse individual and institutional abuse and neglect.

As researchers shed light on the mistreatment of youths and on society's efforts to cope with this problem, professionals must play a continuing role in defining the issues related to such abuse and in organizing community support for these youths. The many dedicated friends of mistreated youngsters are well represented in the words of Father Flanagan, a midwestern priest who spent his life ministering to the needs of yesterday's "throwaway youth":

"There were no bad boys. There were only bad parents, bad environments, and bad examples. It's wrong even to call it juvenile deliquency. Why not call it what it generally is—the delinquency of a callous and indifferent society?" [34]

Why not? Why not stimulate and nurture the motivation and ability of communities to meet the needs of mistreated youths?

[33] Evaluation of Child Abuse and Neglect Projects, 1974–1977.
[34] Fulton Oursler and Will Oursler, "Father Flanagan of Boys Town" (New York: Doubleday & Co., 1959), pp. 191–192.

APPENDIX N

ADOLESCENT ABUSE AND NEGLECT: ISSUES OF INCIDENCE, INTERVENTION AND SERVICE DELIVERY

(By Bruce Fisher and Jane Berdie)

"I'm a 14-year-old girl. My Dad has whipped me and beaten me all my life. It keeps getting worse. Yesterday, he punched me hard in the stomach a bunch of times. I'm scared to death. I'm afraid he's going to kill me.

"I'm Jim, I'm 16. I've run away from home 18 times in the last 3 years. My Dad hates me. He beats me up when I'm home. Last time he hit me in the face with his fist. I'm in a runaway home now. But they say I can't stay here much longer. Sooner or later, they always send me back home.

"My name is Alice. I'm 14. My Dad has sex with me. I'm sure my Mom knows, but she's afraid to do anything about it. Maybe she doesn't care. She's been sick a lot. I love my Daddy, but I don't want to do it with him anymore. I'm scared."

These vignettes are real. They are typical of thousands of situations in the United States involving maltreatment of adolescents. Such maltreatment is neither a new nor unrecognized phenomenon; there are innumerable references to physical, emotional and sexual maltreatment and exploitation of youth in personal journals, social science research, fiction, medical, legal and psychological case studies, and academic and professional literature throughout the last several hundred years (Refs. 1, 2, and 3).

Since the 19th century there has been periodic interest in defining maltreatment of youth as problematic. These bursts of social concern have catalyzed social reform in the areas of child labor, legal rights of minors and educational opportunities. However, the basic right of parents and other adults to "punish" youth in whatever way they deem appropriate has not been a focus of social concern until quite recently.

Currently there is growing concern about abuse and neglect of adolescent youth. This concern is in part a development of legal and attitudinal changes related to these earlier social reforms, to the recent and quite phenomenal increase in awareness of child abuse and neglect, and to the increased visibility of youth in society.

Mistreated youth have become more visible since the advent of alternative youth services in the late 1960s and 1970s, particularly in the runaway houses. Here, young people began to talk about the maltreatment they were subjected to in their homes.

Sensitized to the problem of child abuse and neglect and to the legal rights of minors, some youth counselors and others who work with troubled and troublesome youths have begun to think of and respond to the maltreatment of youth as "abuse" and "neglect." At the same time, various federal and state agencies, as well as child abuse and neglect researchers, have begun to explore the nature of the problem and the delivery of services to abused and neglected teenagers.

As might be expected in a new area of focus, there are critical gaps in knowledge about the scope, extent and impact of adolescent abuse and neglect and about the identification and intervention strategies which are useful in prevention and remediation. In part, this is due to differences of opinion regarding definition, etiology, typology, impact, and effectiveness of various interventions. In part, it is due to the lack of information about services which exist or are being developed to serve abused and neglected youths.

National study

In order to further the scope of knowledge in this area, a study of adolescent abuse and neglect is currently being conducted by Urban and Rural Systems Associates (URSA) of San Francisco. The purpose of the study is to identify and develop intervention and treatment approaches which meet the needs of abused and neglected adolescents.

Focus and methodology

The study is guided by the still-developing "social problem" status of adolescent abuse and neglect and by an emphasis on utilization of the findings. The intent of the study is to present the findings in ways which are useful in program planning, implementation and evaluation. Therefore, the focus and methodology are oriented to identification, description and analysis of both content and process issues related to adolescent abuse and neglect. Content issues include definitional problems, theories of etiology, typology, pathogenicity, and treatment, components of intervention programs and the like. Process issues include the reciprocal influences among the content issues, service access, referral procedures, and coordination of services. It is a combination of these issues with which youth-serving programs must deal.

The study involves three basic types of data collection. These are:

1. A preliminary study of incidence and prevalence using data collected through mass mailings to hundreds of state and local child protection agencies; an analysis of child abuse reporting data gathered by the American Humane Association's National Clearinghouse on Child Abuse and Neglect (Clearinghouse); and data collected from a number of state child abuse and neglect registries which do not participate in the Clearinghouse project.

2. Review of the professional literature focusing on characteristics of adolescent abuse and neglect and programmatic intervention approaches using sources from a variety of related fields—e.g., adolescence, mid-life and family development, juvenile delinquency, runaways, family violence, treatment, and child abuse and neglect.

3. An analysis of existing services and approaches to abused adolescents in 15 cities throughout the United States. At each site, interviews were conducted with staff from a variety of agencies serving young persons, including county departments of social services (Child Protective Services), runaway/crisis shelter programs, juvenile court probation departments, Family Court judges, predelinquent diversion programs, residential treatment programs, child abuse and neglect programs, police departments, community mental health and child guidance agencies, schools and adolescent medical clinics.

This article sets forth some of the preliminary findings of this study, summarized under four substantive topics:

1. The nature of the problem of adolescent abuse and neglect;
2. The nature of the existing service-delivery system;
3. The service issues in adolescent abuse and neglect; and
4. The approaches to coordination of services.

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM OF ADOLESCENT ABUSE AND NEGLECT

Incidence and prevalence

Establishing incidence and prevalence rates for adolescent abuse and neglect is beset with problems similar to those involved in a statistical analysis of child abuse and neglect. The major problems are related to definition, the extent of under-reporting variations among state laws and categories of reporting (e.g., age ranges and severity indices) and inconsistencies between state laws and local judicial and professional interpretations.

Although there are efforts to standardize and centralize child abuse and neglect statistical data, significant problems remain. Nationwide data collected by the American Humane Associations (AHA) for 1976 includes only 29 of the 50 states and three territories. Among these, categorical data (e.g., by age) could not be obtained from six of the 29 states. Moreover, our separate study of state central registry reports revealed many significant inconsistencies among data submitted to the Clearinghouse. For example, although only verified reports are to be submitted, some states submit all reports, whether verified or not, while others have varying levels of "verification."

Furthermore, incidence studies of adolescent abuse and neglect based on official reports of child abuse and neglect made to state social service agencies omit completely the substantial number of incidents which are never formally reported, but are known to workers in juvenile justice agencies, runaway programs, mental health clinics, schools, and numerous other youth-serving agencies.

However incomplete and inaccurate, reported incidence data do show that the problem of adolescent abuse and neglect is significant. A compilation of incidence data for 1976 from the Clearinghouse and state registries indicates approximately 36 percent of nationwide child abuse and neglect cases involve victims

between the ages of ten and 18, and almost 25 percent involve teenage victims (Ref. 4).

A rather surprising finding of the survey showed almost as many reported cases of abuse and neglect in each age group from ten to 18 as in each age group from one to nine. For example, while 6.9 percent of all reports involved two-year-olds, and 6.4 percent involved three-year-olds, the percentages were almost as high for 13-year-olds (5.5 percent) and for 15-year-olds (5.1 percent). This differs from widely-held notions that abuse and neglect involves mostly younger children and that the risk of a child suffering abuse or neglect declines substantially as the child gets older.

Definitions

A major issue in the study of adolescent abuse and neglect is that of definition. At present, there are no separate legal definitions of adolescent abuse apart from existing definitions of child abuse, nor has the literature in the eld suggested any. This study used the definition of "abuse" set forth in Section 3 of the U.S. Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act, Public Law 93-247: "the . . . physical or mental injury, sexual abuse, negligent treatment, or maltreatment of a child under the age of 18 by a person who is responsible for the child's welfare under circumstances which indicate that the child's health or welfare is harmed or threatened . . ."

As those who have struggled with definitional issues in the field of child abuse know, such struggles are circuitous, providing more questions than answers. Suffice it to say that several important issues arise in attempting to define adolescent abuse and neglect. These are:

1. For what purposes do we need a definition?

There are a variety or reasons to define the term, including definitions for research purposes, for programmatic eligibility, for legal jurisdiction, and for identification of appropriate resource agencies—i.e., whether protective services should deal with the case, or juvenile services, or runaway programs, etc. Until the purposes for which the definition is to be used is clear, attempts at definitions are useless.

In most situations in which definitions are needed, issues such as the degree of harm, the age of the young person, the existence of other categorical labels—i.e., alcoholic, school problem, delinquent, etc.—and the availability of services are all involved. However, based on interviews with those working with abused and neglected teenagers, existing definitions of child abuse and neglect, qualified as to age, seem to be adequate to define adolescent abuse and neglect. This is because most child abuse and neglect definitions are subjective, and include such discretionary concepts as "serious injury," or "risk of death or serious injury," or, as in Public Law 93-247, "circumstances which indicate that the child's health or welfare is harmed or threatened." If "abuse" and "neglect" are seen as concepts used as tools to initiate action for young persons and/or their families, then existing child abuse and neglect difinitions seem to be adequate for taking action in situations involving teenagers.

2. What is adolescence?

Many practitioners working with young persons point out that the developmental stages of adolescence may occur at various chronological ages, depending on the individual, and that arbitrary definitions of adolescence as from age 12 to 17, or from 13 to 18, for example, are inaccurate. This fact will not likely affect legal definitions of abuse and neglect, which, for the most part, involve all young persons under the age of majority. However, it may well influence agencies and programs designed to work with adolescent abuse and neglect in setting age limitations for their services, by suggesting the need to offer services to both preteenagers and to young persons over the age of majority.

3. Legal definitions of adolescent abuse and neglect.

Basically, there are three areas of law which may contain definitions of child abuse and neglect: 1) mandatory child abuse reporting laws, which require reports of suspected child abuse to be made to a designated agency under certain circumstances; 2) juvenile or family court laws which set forth the jurisdiction of the court over "abused," "neglected," or "dependent" children; and 3) criminal laws which make intentional acts of child abuse or neglect punishable as crimes.

While many states have definitions of child abuse in one or more of these statutes, no state has yet adopted a separate legal definition of adolescent abuse.

From a purely legal standpoint, it is probably unnecessary to create a separate definition of adolescent abuse. This is true because most existing definitions of child abuse are sufficiently broad and general to include acts of intentional harm to young persons by their parents or caretakers.

Practically, however, there are a number of significant issues associated with legal definitions of adolescent abuse and neglect. Briefly summarized, these include:

1. "Seriousness of the injury."—Because of their age and size, physical abuse of teenagers does not usually involve broken bones, spiral fractures, subdural hematomas, or other extreme injuries usually associated with physical abuse of infants or younger children. Thus, definitions of abuse which focus on the "seriousness of the injury" may limit legal interventions in cases of adolescent abuse.

2. Judicial attitudes toward adolescent abuse.—Many cases of adolescent abuse and neglect are not brought to court as such because of assumptions by child protection workers and by youth workers that they will not be able to "win" such cases in court—i.e., that the judge will not declare the youth to be legally "abused." As a result, a substantial number of cases of adolescent abuse are brought to the courts as "status offenses" or as delinquency, in order to obtain court-ordered intervention and placement. This approach may place the young person within the juvenile corrections system, rather than the state social services system. It also tends to reinforce the "victimization" of the youth, focusing the blame on the youth as a status offender or delinquent, rather than on the abusive or neglectful parent or caretaker.

3. Emotional abuse and neglect.—Many child protective workers and youth workers identify "emotional abuse" as a major aspect of adolescent abuse. Whereas physical injuries from abuse may be more severe in younger children, psychological harms from abuse may be more apparent in teenagers. Because few states have developed legal definitions of abuse and neglect which include standards for emotional abuse and psychological harm, legal definitions may be inappropriate in many situations including emotionally abused adolescents.

4. "Provocations" and "justification."—For the most part, legal definitions of child abuse have not dealt with concepts such as provocation and justification. This may be true because of certain assumptions about parental conduct and the innocence of younger children—e.g., that child abuse cannot be allowed, no matter what conduct provoked it.

With teenage youth, however, questions of justification and provocation become more significant, particularly because much adolescent abuse involves parental discipline of "misbehaving" teenagers. As discussed below, it appears that assumptions about the "innocence" of child victims of abuse are not readily applied to adolescent victims of abuse.

Conceptions of Age-State Development and Abuse Roles

The obvious and most used paradigm for defining, understanding and dealing with adolescent abuse and neglect is the one which has developed for child abuse and neglect. In the literature on child abuse and neglect (Ref. 5), the concept "abuse" includes ideas about roles and role relationships—i.e., a perpetrator and a victim who are involved in a set of events which includes maltreatment of the victim.

These abuse roles and role relationships conjure strong images which in turn serve to operationally define and verify the existence of these roles and role relationships in real-life situations. That is, it is the real-life enactment of the role-conjured images which contribute to the definition of the situation as "abuse."

Yet these images may not fit most cases of violence or other mistreatment of adolescent youth. To the extent they do not fit and to the extent the child abuse and neglect paradigm is the only way of thinking about adolescent abuse and neglect, there will be very few substantiated cases of adolescent abuse and neglect. Thus, it is useful to explore these role-conjured images of child abuse and neglect.

The most important facets of these images are:

Perpetrators are bigger and more powerful than victims.

Victims are smaller than perpetrators. They have limited power in the relationship with the perpetrator.

Victims are not as responsible for their actions (however provocative these may be) as perpetrators are. Usually this is because victims are members of a cohort (such as age) which is not expected to be as responsible.

The role relationship is characterized by mutual neediness. The victim's

needs are thought to be appropriate to this relationship while the perpetrator's are not.

While the victim's behavior may be inappropriate, it is assumed that the behavior is in part accounted for by his age-stage (although perhaps by his psychological age-stage).

The victim is isolated from potential helpers.

These images of the roles and role relationships in child abuse and neglect are not as strong in or even descriptive of adolescent/adult relationships. The primary difference is that adolescents do not fit the image of victim.

Maltreated adolescents, like their peers, are often nearly as big and as strong as adults. They are often provocative. They are capable of better impulse control than children; they have access to potential helpers in social systems other than the family. The discrepancies of power and resources between the perpetrator and the victim are considerably less in adolescent abuse and neglect than in child abuse and neglect and, therefore, the images of abuse roles do not seem to fit for adolescent/adult interactions, however violent these may be.

A perspective of developmental stages casts a different light on the issue of roles and role relationships and on the images conjured by these. Both adolescence and middlescence are characterized by experiences which can contribute to the potential for violence between parents and youths.

Adolescence is a time in which young people experience new and conflicting feelings about their physical and sexual development, and their need for both dependence on and independence from their parents. They are reassessing beliefs and often reach self-righteous and dogmatic decisions about values. They are interested in experimenting, taking risks, and attempting variations in presentations of themselves. These experiences are often accompanied by moodiness, pendulum-like swings from withdrawal to almost clinging on parents, and from sociability to awkardness and discomfort, painful self-consciousness and exasperting self centeredness. This self-centeredness does nothing to enhance their limited ability to empathize with feelings and personal circumstances dissimilar to those they themselves are currently experiencing.

These feelings and experiences are a part of normal adolescent development, but the accompaning behavior can be difficult for family members to live with, especially if they do not see or accept the developmental context.

Most parents of adolescents are middle-aged, which, like adolescence, is characterized by its own configuration of experiences and feelings, some of which can be equally difficult for the family to live with. Middlescent adults are confronted with a series of stressful experiences in their own lives. Often there are physical changes which are interpreted as signs of irreversible decline (wrinkling, balding, gaining weight, decreased stamina, menopause). Sometimes there is a feeling of failure in one's role as worker, parent, spouse, or provider. New problems (such as role reversals with aging parents) may compound feelings of depression and anger. Much of what characterizes these two age-stages is potentially conflictual. If the separation process of the young person is particularly difficult and if the parent has a strong need to maintain tight and constant control, then these common age-stage conflicts may erupt into violence.

This perspective changes the images of roles and role relationships. It stresses the potential for conflict arising out of parents' and youths' difficulties in responding well to age-appropriate behavior of the other. It emphasizes the developmental context of a great deal of adolescents' behavior which is often interpreted by adults (parents and service providers) as intentionally provoking. It allows for a different set of definitional images in the roles of an abuse situation, images which are not locked into roles of perpetrator and victim.

Protection of the victim

The child abuse and neglect paradigm also affects the response of the service system. The primary reason for intervention in a situation of child abuse and neglect is protection of the child. Public education and training of protective services workers revolves on this issue, that is, determining whether children reported to the protective service agency are at risk to serious abuse or neglect, and intervening to protect them from this possibility. While most children reported as abused or neglected have not been seriously mistreated (Clearinghouse data indicate that 96.6% of reported cases are classified as "potential," "mild," or "moderate"), it is clearly the possibility of serious abuse or neglect which indicates the need for protective service intervention.

Apart from sexual abuse, the majority of abused or neglected adolescents do not require "protection," in the sense in which it is provided to children. Despite

psychological and economic needs which keep them bound to abusive situations, probably the great majority of maltreated adolescents will not be abused to the point of serious or permanent injury. However, the psychological impact of abuse can be quite serious (Ref. 6). Thus, there is a need for protective services which facilitate young people being helped through, and occasionally out of, a dysfunctional family situation.

The services necessary are similar to those provided to families with problems of child abuse—e.g., counseling, temporary or long-term alternative living arrangements, and educational and employment services.

Since the basic legal mandate and professional training of protective services agencies is protection of the child, many are not oriented to abuse which does not require protective services. Staff are often not trained and do not want to work with adolescents. The framework for their skills is providing a service—i.e., protection—which abused adolescents usually do not need.

Additionally, a very real problem in many agencies is that there are limited resources. Caseloads are often already dangerously high; some agencies have made a conscious decision not to respond to, much less work with, all but the most serious cases of adolescent abuse and neglect.

EXISTING SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEMS

Perhaps the major focus of our study to date has been as assessment of existing services for abused and neglected youth and the role various agencies and programs play in providing such services. A major finding, although one probably known to everyone working with young persons, has been the fact that abused adolescents are more likely to be served by the juvenile justice system, the alternative youth services network, or the mental health system, rather than by the traditional child protection system. This is true because abused or neglected adolescents, unlike younger children, often come to public attention by their disruptive behavior, rather than as a result of what has happened to them. They run away, steal, fail or skip school, fight, set fires, or behave in other ways which put them in contact with the juvenile justice system and the youth services network; or, they become mentally ill, alcoholic, or heroin addicts, and come in contact with the community mental health system.

The abuse or neglect that these young people experience in their homes is often not identified nor classified as such. As a result, a significant number of seriously abused and neglected adolescents and their families have no contact with the child protective system. Rather, they are provided services from juvenile probation, delinquency and/or status offender diversion programs, alcohol and substances abuse programs, community mental health agencies, runaway programs, comprehensive youth service agencies, and school counseling programs.

Social services system

Many reported cases of abused or neglected teenagers are not accepted by social service agencies either because of narrow definitions of abuse and neglect, or because priorities dictate a focus on abuse and neglect of younger children. Often, only the most serious, clear-cut cases of adolescent abuse are accepted.

To a large extent, child protection agencies are not providing adequate protective services for adolescent youths. With the exception of three projects funded by the National Institute of Mental Health (San Antonio, Texas; St. Paul, Minnesota; and Prince George's County, Maryland), there are few efforts in protective service units to meet the specific needs of adolescents. Only a few county programs in the United States have separate adolescent units to deal with problems of adolescent abuse. Fewer still have "adolescent specialists" or "adolescent coordinators," who focus specific attention on cases involving adolescents. For the most part, the same workers handling intake and supervision of cases involving infants and young children also handle cases involving adolescents, and tend to use the same procedures and approaches for both types of cases.

Critics of the social service agency's involvement in adolescent abuse and neglect argue that causes involving adolescents often require different approaches than cases involving younger children. They point out that adolescents need to be more involved in decisions of placement and case management than do younger children; that providing alternative placements of adolescents, both short-term and long-term, is more difficult than with younger children; and that specific resources for teenagers exist separate from those for younger children. In many cities, we found that protective services does not meet the needs of their teenage clients. They do not know about or work closely with alternative, community-

based resources. They do not deal well with the family dynamics associated with many cases of adolescent abuse, involving issues of adolescent developmental tasks and parents' struggles around "middlescence" or "mid-life crises." In every city we studied, we found that adolescent abuse received little or no priority within the protective service system, and that many teenage victims of abuse or neglect were quickly referred to the juvenile justices system or to a runaway program.

The availability of treatment services also affects the social service agency's willingness to intervene in adolescent abuse and neglect. In communities with few services for troubled adolescents and their families, or in communities where coordination between the social service agency and the network of youth services is poor, there is often a low reporting rate of adolescent abuse and neglect. Sometimes the social service agency actively discourages reports of adolescent abuse and neglect except in extreme circumstances because no useful action can be taken. In such cases, intervention in adolescent abuse and neglect is limited to cases which need emergency protection.

Juvenile justice system

There is substantial overlap between adolescent abuse and the juvenile justice system. The overlap occurs in several ways. First, a significant number of young people identified as delinquents or status offenders are also victims of abuse and neglect. Some of them were abused and/or neglected as small children, but a large number of them have been abused or neglected as adolescents. In such cases, the young person almost always remains labeled as a delinquent or a status offender, and is rarely referred to the protective service system as an "abused adolescent." As a result, the young persons may wind up in juvenile detention centers or juvenile correctional facilities. Also, the young person and his/her family rarely receive supportive services, like family counseling, to help deal with the cause and effects of the abuse.

A second overlap between adolescent abuse and juvenile justice occurs in many cases where a youth initially is identified as abused and referred to social services. As noted above, for a variety of reasons including impossibly high caseloads, the low priority given to adolescent cases, and the relative ease of sustaining a "beyond control" or "status offense" petition compared to abuse or neglect petitions, many such cases are referred by social services to the juvenile justice system.

A third overlap occurs in the area of service delivery. Emergency shelter homes, long-term foster and group homes, and family counseling programs for youths and their families are all developed both by social service agencies and by juvenile justice agencies. Many such resources serve both abused/neglected adolescents as well as delinquents and status offenders. However, little coordination exists in the development of services between the protective services system and the juvenile justice system. In fact, one system often has more money available to it than the other (usually the juvenile justice system), thus making the two systems competitive rather than complementary.

Youth services programs, including runaway programs

Perhaps the most effective advocate of services for youth, this network includes the alternative, community-based programs for youth which began mainly during the 1960s as runaway programs, crisis hot lines, and store-front counseling and referral projects. To some extent the network also includes such long-standing services as YMCAs, YWCAs, Big Brothers and Sisters, family and youth service agencies, and other more traditional programs for youth.

A significant number of young persons (one-third to one-half of the clients in most runaway programs) who receive services in this network have experienced abuse or neglect as teenagers. Rarely, however, are these youth programs effectively linked to the protective services network—i.e., social services or the juvenile court. Many such programs prefer to avoid involvement with child protection agencies altogether, and choose instead to provide individual and family counseling services on their own.

At least two issues deserve attention here. First, the failure of such agencies to report suspected child abuse and neglect to the designated agency, and second, the ability of such programs to provide effective counseling and treatment services to families involved in physical or sexual abuse. As long as social service agencies remain legally mandated to receive and investigate reports of suspected child abuse and neglect, effective intervention in cases involving abused adolescents will require greater cooperation between social services and youth

services. At present, there is little precedence for such coordination. To the extent that coordination between them can be achieved, physical assaults on young persons by their parents will likely be identified as "abuse." Without coordination, these problems will continue to be subsumed into and hidden among other problem-identification labels.

As a result of the failure of other agencies to provide family counseling to abused adolescents and their families, and because many youth programs are already providing family crisis intervention counseling, many youth worker programs are now providing ongoing family counseling in adolescent abuse cases. For the most part, youth workers have traditionally received little training or education in family therapy. Likewise, youth workers have not been involved specifically in dealing with family dynamics around incest or physical abuse. In spite of such shortcomings, however, most family therapists with whom we met agreed that youth workers can and do provide valuable family "therapy" or "counseling" and suggest that support systems, such as family therapist consultants be developed to assist youth worker counseling efforts.

SERVICE ISSUES IN ADOLESCENT ABUSE AND NEGLECT

We found few programs which have established special services for abused and/or neglected adolescents and their families, although there is an increasing number of programs which are attempting to adapt services to meet this need. In many programs, awareness of adolescent abuse and neglect is recent and the implications of providing services are only now being addressed.

Among the services designed for adolescent abuse and neglect are the following:

Identification

Most social service agencies are required by law to investigate reports of abuse and neglect made on children up to age 18. Few have any staff, much less an organizational unit which specializes in adolescents. The few which do have clear advantages, including knowledge about and ability to work with adolescents and their families, and knowledge of and working relationships with the youth service network.

Reporting

As mentioned above, many youth and juvenile service workers indicated that they do not report suspected cases of adolescent abuse and neglect to child protective services. Included among their reasons for failing to report is their desire to provide services directly, their distrust of protective service agencies, the unwillingness of their clients (the adolescent victims) to agree to a report, and a belief that social services will not accept the case even if it is referred.

Assumptions about the juvenile court's approach to adolescent abuse and neglect also discourage reporting. Most youth workers as well as protective service workers assume that the court will not sustain, or that insufficient evidence exists to sustain, petitions of adolescent abuse. Protective service agencies tended to dismiss complaints of adolescent abuse and neglect because of the belief that such cases could not be brought to court. Potential reporters of adolescent abuse and neglect chose not to report such cases because of their belief that insufficient evidence existed to prove such allegations in court. In many cities, protective services and/or juvenile probation chose to request petitions for "unmanageable" or "beyond control" in situations of adolescent abuse and neglect, because of the relative ease of sustaining these petitions as opposed to an abuse and neglect petition. Some observers of this approach felt that it unfairly stigmatized and labeled a child as "bad" and tended to lower the adolescent's already low self-esteem. Others felt that the bringing of an unmanageability petition, instead of an abuse petition, had no adverse effects on the young person, but rather made it easier to obtain needed services which were available only to adjudicated youngsters.

Hotlines

Many of the youth hotlines which sprang up in the late 1960s have gone through a series of focal problems related to drugs, V.D. and birth control, running away, etc. Abuse is now becoming a more common subject of calls. Some hotlines are now training staff to listen for and respond to concerns about family violence. The Maltreatment of Youth Project of the Boys Town Research Center in Omaha, Nebraska, has designed a training program for hotline staff regarding adolescent abuse and neglect.

Another trend in hotlines has been improved coordination of services with child protection service agencies. In the early 1970s child abuse hotlines were developed in some cities. Many were autonomous from protective service agencies, reflecting intent to encourage calls by ensuring anonymity. However, the special circumstances of abuse calls led many of these hotlines to coordinate their efforts with protective service agencies. Often callers report abused children and youth by name and address, or, parents call requesting immediate assistance in the home. Increasingly, adolescents call abuse hotlines to report themselves as abused or neglected. Therefore, some abuse hotlines such as the CARE Line in Hartford, Connecticut have set up contractual arrangements with the protective services agency to respond to requests for emergency help.

Shelter homes/short-term placements

We have identified a concern in a number of cities over the lack of short-term placements for abused and neglected adolescents. Where runaway programs exist in the community, protective services used them as short-term placements for adolescents, usually on a contract basis. In other communities, juvenile detention facilities are still being used as short-term placements by protective services, and in one situation the county jail was used to house dependent teenagers.

A number of communities in which we conducted interviews were involved in the development of emergency shelter homes for adolescents, including status offenders and dependent teenagers. This effort had reached the level of state legislation in Florida and New Mexico, and it seems to be a major focus of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention within the U.S. Department of Justice. One issue in this area is the coordination of these emergency shelter homes between the juvenile justice system and the local protective service system.

Another issue in the short-term care of abused adolescents stems from the use of volunteer families to provide short-term shelters. Most of the shelter home programs mentioned above use volunteer families, usually with some rudimentary training. Many practitioners commented on the difficulty of caring for "troubed adolescents" and wondered whether volunteer families without professional care skills could provide adequate shelter for such teenagers. Many youth workers commented on the inappropriateness of a family setting for some abused or neglected teenagers. Foster family care is a social system which often does not work for adolescents, many of whom are having too many difficulties with separation issues in their own families to tolerate, or be tolerated by, a foster family.

Long-term placements

Almost every city visited indicated a lack of long-term placements for adolescents in general, and for abused and/or neglected adolescents in particular. Long-term foster and group home and residential treatment programs were not available in sufficient numbers in most of the cities included in this study.

Runaway programs/crisis counseling

We found most runaway programs to be aware of the high percentage of their clients who are abused or neglected, and that abuse is often a factor in a young person's running away. Few of the runaway programs we visited, however, had any special services or focus on adolescent abuse and neglect. For the most part, runaway program staff thought that abused or neglected clients were in need of the same type of services as other clients in their programs, and tended to emphasize the need for family counseling and supportive services for the teenager.

Only Voyage House, in Philadelphia, and Spectrum, in Burlington, Vermont, were actively involved in coordinating services for adolescent clients with the local protective services agency. In fact, both of these programs were actively developing follow-up services to abused and/or neglected adolescents and their families in coordination with protective services, and communication between the two agencies was good in both cases. Among the programs developed especially for abused and neglected adolescents are:

An education program conducted by protective services for Voyage House staff on identifying abuse and neglect, reporting guidelines (including which kinds of cases to report), and understanding the dynamics of abuse and neglect.

Joint investigative and case planning interviews with families by staff from the runaway program and the protective service agency;

One-to-one liaison relationships between staff from both agencies; and
A contract between Spectrum and protective services allowing Spectrum staff to supervise cases of adolescent abuse and neglect in which the youths were placed in specialized foster care homes developed by Spectrum.

Family therapy

Abuse is seen as a symptom of family dysfunction. The central issue in adolescent abuse and neglect is often the separation/parental control conflict, although as a typology of adolescent abuse and neglect syndromes begins to emerge, it appears that the focal issue may vary according to the abuse pattern. For instance, separation/control conflict may be more commonly associated with abuse which begins only at adolescence or which occurred at approximately age two or three and did not recur until adolescence, whereas violence as a thermostatic regulator of family cohesion may be associated with life-long abuse. In either case, abuse can be understood as family interaction and treated within this framework.

Group therapy

Group therapy makes good use of adolescents' age-appropriate interest in peer relationships. Group therapy is being used with sexually abused as well as physically abused and neglected adolescents. Generally the major group issues are issues of adolescence, not abuse and neglect, although some special concerns related to abuse and neglect are common. For instance, a special focus mentioned in therapy of sexually abused adolescent girls is regaining a sense of privacy. In one group of abused/neglected adolescents, a special focus has been the development of problem-solving skills to avoid abuse-potential situations. Several therapists have mentioned the tendency of some abused youth to set themselves up to be victimized and the need to focus on this in therapy.

APPROACHES TO COORDINATION OF ADOLESCENT ABUSE AND NEGLECT SERVICES

Community-based coordination of adolescent abuse and neglect services is only beginning to develop in a few of the sites included in this study. Effective coordination involves three major and often unrelated service systems; the child protection system, the juvenile justice system and the alternative youth programs. There is little precedence in most communities for coordination of services among these three systems. There are, however, a number of attempts at coordinating services for adolescent abuse and neglect that became known to us. These include:

San Antonio, Texas.—As a result of a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, San Antonio had developed a joint-agency adolescent abuse and neglect effort involving the protective services agency and the Bexar County Community Guidance Clinic. Basically, protective services will refer cases involving adolescent abuse and neglect to therapists at the Guidance Center, which will provide family and individual therapy to the family and will work with the protective service agency staff around family dynamics and other treatment issues.

Adams County, Colorado.—All of the major youth-serving programs in Adams County, Colorado are involved in planning a comprehensive community-based youth treatment system. Among the goals of the coordination effort is to develop community residential placements. Currently many youths who are status offenders or abused or placed temporarily in the detention center and later sent to out-of-state residential care programs. A network of relatively new shelter home programs in the county has demonstrated effectiveness as an alternative short-term treatment. An analysis of recidivism rates among youths who are placed back in their homes after short-term shelter home care (which involves intensive family, individual and peer group counseling) shows the program as having significant positive impact.

Prince George's County, Maryland.—Prince George's County has participated in a number of efforts in the area of adolescent abuse and neglect. The Prince George's County Hotline published results of an incidence study of adolescent abuse and neglect among calls to the hotline, and subsequently published a training manual on adolescent abuse. Prince George's County also received a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health to demonstrate the effectiveness of using two adolescent coordinators within the protective services agency to assist in the handling of adolescent abuse and neglect.

Ramsey County (St. Paul), Minnesota.—The Ramsey County Mental Health Agency in St. Paul, Minnesota, also received a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health to demonstrate services to abused and neglected adolescents. An adolescent specialist was employed within the protective service agency

to handle intake of cases involving adolescent abuse. The worker had prior experience in youth service programs as well as protective services.

We are aware of a number of other attempts to coordinate services to abused and/or neglected adolescents; but, because we have not yet had a chance to visit with and/or analyze all of these programs, the description of such efforts will be part of our final report rather than of this article.

PRELIMINARY RECOMMENDATIONS

At this point, we have focused our recommendations on the role of protective services agencies in adolescent abuse and neglect. The following is a summary of these recommendations:

1. Increased priority for teenagers within social services;
2. Greater coordination of services between protective services and the youth services network on the levels of case planning and program development and coordination;
3. Development of an adolescent worker position or unit in protective services to work with teenagers and to develop linkages with the youth service system;
4. Better statistical records to identify the extent of adolescent abuse and neglect handled by protective services;
5. Development of short-term and long-term placements which are suitable for abused and neglected teenagers;
6. Coordination between protective services and the juvenile justice system around cases involving abused and neglected adolescents;
7. Clarification of protective services' role in the handling of status offenders and the overlap of services to status offenders and to abused and/or neglected adolescents;
8. Increased training around values-clarification, adolescent development and family dynamics for workers handling cases involving adolescents;
9. Inter-agency in-service education and information exchange programs between protective services agencies and the youth services network;
10. Greater input of frontline workers in the youth service system to protective service agency planning of workable approaches to adolescent abuse and neglect;
11. Analysis of community resource networks in adolescent abuse and neglect in order to identify the strength, weaknesses, service gaps and strategies for technical assistance to communities to conduct such a needs analysis and to assist in the development of coordinated service delivery.

These issues will be addressed in the final report of this study. We will also present a symposium on adolescent abuse and neglect in October, 1978, in San Francisco, California, and will submit final copies of adolescent abuse and neglect service models to the Youth Development Bureau at that time.

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APPENDIX O

CHILDREN WITHOUT HOMES*

HIGHLIGHTS OF OUR FINDINGS

Families Don't Count

At every point in the placement process children and their natural families are isolated from one another by the action and inaction of those with official responsibility. Pro-family rhetoric notwithstanding, a pervasive, implicit anti-family bias often shapes decisions about children at risk of removal or in out-of-home care.

When the Child Is Placed

The initial separation of child and family is often by default. Few alternatives such as homemakers, day care,[a] specialized day treatment, alternative housing and other supportive services are available. Removing a child from home is often the easiest course. Funds for removal are available; adequate funds for alternatives are not.

Sometimes, in order to get appropriate educational or social services for handicapped children, parents are told they must place their children in out-of-home care. Sometimes, they are even told they must give up legal custody of their children.

When it is necessary to place a child out of the home, little thought typically is given to placement with familiar relatives. Sometimes states do not pay foster care rates to relatives, although they will to strangers. Yet without such assistance, relatives often cannot care for the children. This means that even when willing relatives are available, a child is likely to be totally uprooted and placed with strangers.

When the Child Is in Out-of-Home Care

Typically, parents are not explicitly encouraged to maintain contact with their children. Sometimes they are actively discouraged from doing so. Only one-half of the reporting counties in our child welfare survey had specific written policies about parent-child visitation. One county reported it permitted such visits only on special occasions, such as the child's birthday. Another permitted visiting only in the courtroom, hardly a setting designed to put either the child or parent at ease.

Parents who want to maintain close contact with a child in placement get little help from local or state officials. Funds to pay transportation costs for visits are limited even though children are often placed long distances from their families. Parents are not routinely informed about the progress children are making. Sometimes they are not even informed when their children are moved. All this serves to reduce psychological ties and lessen the likelihood of reunification.

While the child is in out-of-home care, parents generally get little help with the problems that led to the removal. Funds for services that would enable the family to be reunited are seldom available.

When Ties With the Natural Family Are Broken

There is far too little concern for the child's right to a family when initially removed from his or her own home, often before other alternatives are tried. Yet it is a tragic irony that once parental ties have been severed, either as a consequence of parental abandonment or the action or inaction of public systems, legal termination of parental rights is rare. Regardless of the reality of the

*Source: Children's Defense Fund, Children Without Homes," Washington, D.C. 1978, pp. 5–9.

[a] While day care services theoretically can have a significant role in relieving stress on families, public policy in general has limited eligibility for publicly supported day care to children of working parents. Only a very small proportion of day care funds has been used for day care to prevent out-of-home placements.

child's current situation or needs, there is widespread reluctance to initiate proceedings to terminate the rights of biological parents.

For children who should have parental rights terminated or who have had parental rights terminated, efforts to ensure new permanent homes are often not vigorous enough. Adoption efforts are hampered by fiscal barriers, inadequate funds for subsidized adoptions or legal fees, as well as deeply embedded views that certain children—minority children, older children, and children with special medical needs—are "hard to place," and thus "unadoptable."

Children Don't Count

Children placed out of their homes are not only likely to be cut off from families, but also abandoned psychologically and sometimes literally by the public systems that assume responsibility for them. They are, in effect, children in double jeopardy.

In every county we visited, those who work directly with children report great pressures: impossibly large caseloads, excessive and meaningless paperwork, no time to get to know children for whom they make decisions, no time to visit families, and no training to deal with complex family problems.

Children remain in care for long periods of time, often moving from place to place, without the chance to experience stable caring from any adult. In our survey, 13 percent of the children had been out of their own homes for over had been in out-of-home care for two or more years. Moreover, the responding survey counties reported that 18 percent of the children in out-of-home care had four years, and an additional 20 percent for over six years. In all, 52 percent been moved more than three times.

Children in institutional or group home settings rather than foster home care appear to be particularly vulnerable to public neglect and various forms of institutional abuse. Mechanisms for ensuring that these children are appropriately placed and receive quality care are ineffective or nonexistent.

Sixty-four of the 140 county child welfare offices in our survey reported having written policies requiring caseworker-child contact. But while 46 percent of the counties reporting required such contact if a child was in a foster home, only 30 percent required contact if a child was in a group home; 25 percent if the child was in an institution; and only 12 percent if a child was in out-of state placement. In other words, the further away the child was from a family context, the less caseworker-child contact was required.

Too many children are in institutions. In each of the seven study states, public officials openly acknowledged that children who did not belong in institutions were placed there. On the other hand, children who do need institutional care or care in residential treatment facilities may not get it. Children with special needs, for instance, are frequently placed in institutions with no appropriate programs or specialized services.

Despite immense public concern about familial abuse, no state CDF staff visited had set up mechanisms, nor issued guidelines to monitor and eliminate the institutional abuse of children. Such abuse takes many forms: the unmonitored, excessive use of seclusion or drug therapies, severe behavioral restrictions, or harsh physical punishment. Despite evidence that abuse of children in institutions and other group settings is widespread, no state studied had a licensing statute spelling out specific sanctions for institutional abuse.

Children are sent far distances from their own communities, sometimes within the same state, but often out of state. Out-of-state placement virtually ensures that there will be no contact with family or caseworker. Nationally, we estimate over 10,000 children are placed out of state at any one time.

The failure of State responsibility

States are often neglectful parents—sometimes even abusive ones—failing to meet their ongoing obligations to individual children at risk of or in placement. Public systems lack the capacity to ensure coordinated program planning nad service delivery. Compliance with even weak laws and regulations is inadequate. We found evidence of such failures in each of the study states.

State statutory protections for children and families facing placement were inadequate.

Statutory criteria in the seven study states for the court's removal of a child from home were often vague and did not require that alternatives be tried in non-emergency situations.[8] Counsel was not uniformly provided at all points in the placement process.

[8] There is such a requirement in two of California's 58 counties as a result of experimental time-limited legislation. See Chapter 4.

None of the child welfare statutes in the study states explicitly required that consideration be given to placing a child with willing relatives as opposed to strangers; that a child be placed in the least restrictive setting; or that a child be placed in his or her own community unless there was specific evidence that to do so would be harmful to the child.

Only one study state (South Carolina), at the time of our visit, exercised its continuing responsibility to individual children in out-of-home care. It requires by statute a periodic review of the children, conducted independently of the public child welfare agency responsible for the care of the children.

Only three study states (Ohio, South Dakota, and Massachusetts) made it possible for minors at risk of voluntary psychiatric hospitalization to have access to counsel prior to hospitalization.

Efforts to provide permanence for children were limited.

No study state had placed emphasis in its statute or policy on reunification efforts to ensure, whenever appropriate, that children and natural families were reunited.[10]

South Carolina was the only study state which, as a matter of state policy, had taken a strong stand in regard to a child's right to permanence. The state had created an Office of Child Advocacy within the Governor's Office to act as advocate and ombudsman for children in foster care and to ensure that their right to permanence was protected.

All seven study states provided for subsidized adoptions, but only two gave priority to foster parents for the adoption of children they had cared for for long periods of time. Most study states failed to provide adequate funding for their subsidy programs.

Efforts by the state to ensure that children out of their homes received quality services were lacking.

Licensing, which theoretically constitutes a core component of the state's efforts to protect children, was ineffective. Even in Massachusetts and California, the two study states that had recently substantially modified licencing procedures and regualtions, licensing efforts were still beset with enforcement failures, and the licensing process was isolated from other placement activities. The same isolation pervaded program reviews.

No study state had developed explicit procedures for monitoring purchase-of-service agreements and ensuring that private providers met agreed-upon performance standards.

The administrative structure of children's services was varied and complex, but bore little relationship to the quality of services.

Fragmentation of children's services was widespread. Only three study states had sought administrative solutions, either through offices for children (Massachusetts and South Dakota), or through liaison staff across systems (New Jersey). Yet in each state we found "exchangeable children," who, with the same needs, were the responsibility of different systems.

State oversight of local practice was inadequate regardless of whether child welfare services were administered by the state or by local jurisdictions, with the state in a supervisory role. No local child welfare office that we visited reported receiving any substantive in-service training from the state child welfare agency. Staff did receive training in how to fill out forms.

Shockingly little was known about the status of children in placement. No study state monitored the treatment of minority children for evidence of discrimination.

Based on CDF's survey of child welfare and probation offices in 140 counties, the lack of information about children out of their homes, even in their own counties, was appalling. Responding child welfare officials could not provide data on the race of 54 percent of the children reported to be in out-of-home care; on the age of 49 percent of the children; on the length of time in care for 53 percent of the children; on the number of moves for 87 percent of the children; and on the legal status for 73 percent. Probation officials did no better. Fifty-nine percent could not identify the race of the children reported in out-of-home placement; 66 percent could not report age; and 42 percent could not identify the types of facilities in which the youths were placed.

Only two of the seven study states were even attempting to gather statewide data within the child welfare system, and only one across systems. No study state had systematic accurate information concerning the numbers of children and families receiving services to prevent placement, what services they received, or how effective such services were. No state could routinely and systematically identify those children who move in and out of placements or trace the pathways of children moving from one system to another.

[10] The California legislation cited in footnote 9 refers specifically to reunification efforts.

No study state was monitoring the treatment of minority children. We found evidence of unequal treatment of Indian children in both study states with large Indian populations, Arizona and South Dakota. In general, data about minority children were inadequate, but information available suggested minority children were even more susceptible than other children to the failures of the child-placing systems.

Efforts to give parents, children and foster parents an opportunity to voice complaints or problems were almost nonexistent.

Massachusetts was the only study state that had created within the Office for Children a mechanism for individual parents, children, foster parents, providers, and others to register complaints about services or seek resolution of difficult situations. Families in New Jersey had access to the Office of the Public Advocate empowered to engage in case and class advocacy in a variety of areas. No other study state had specific mechanisms for redressing procedural wrongs or service inequities and inadequacies, other than through normal legal processes, or in several instances, through ombudsman programs within institutions.

The Failure of Federal Leadership and Policy

There is no overall explicit federal policy toward children out of their homes. The implicit policy reflected in federal funding priorities acts as a disincentive to the development of strong programs ensuring children their own or adoptive families. Federal protections for children at risk of removal or out of their homes are uneven; and weakest in child welfare legislation. There is an explicit policy supporting the deinstitutionalization of already institutionalized persons but there has been little systematic attention to its implications for children. Efforts to require state compliance with federal regulations and laws are virtually nonexistent. Administratively, responsibility for children out of their homes is diffuse and weak. The absence of useful national information about children out of their homes is a scandal, and prevents the monitoring of basic facts about the impact of federal dollars on the care of children.

Federal funding patterns provide incentives for long-term foster care.

The AFDC Foster Care Program (Section 408 of the Social Security Act) pays for out-of-home care for children whose families are eligible for AFDC and who are placed, as a result of a judicial determination, in foster family homes or private nonprofit child care institutions. It pays only for room and board costs, not for services to prevent placement or reunite families, or for services to facilitate, as appropriate, termination of parental rights and adoption. Fiscal Year 1976 federal expenditures for the program were $176 million.

One federal program funded under Title IV-B of the Social Security Act provides funds for a broad range of child welfare services, including services to prevent the removal of a child from his or her own home, but has been consistently funded far below the authorized ceiling of $266 million. For the past few years, the actual appropriation has barely exceeded $50 million. Further, states have used much of this money to pay for out-of-home care, not for services to prevent the removal of children from their homes or to reunite families.

No federal funds are specifically targeted for adoption subsidies. Furthermore, the fact that a handicapped child in foster care who is often eligible for Medicaid would lose eligibility if adopted, services as a disincentive to finding permanent adoptive homes for children with special needs.

Current federal policies fail to ensure adequate procedural and substantive protections to children at risk of placement or in care.

None of the federal child welfare programs providing funds for children out of their homes requires:

—Services to the family to prevent out-of-home placement

—Placement priorities such as placement in the least restrictive setting appropriate to the child's needs and within reasonable proximity to the child's family

—Periodic case reviews by those not providing services

—A dispositional hearing to ensure children are returned home or freed for adoption when appropriate

—Time limits on federally reimbursable foster care for children whose family ties are broken, with good faith efforts to provide a child with permanence

The federal commitment to deinstitutionalization has been haphazard.

Despite national rhetoric favoring deinstitutionalization, federal funds are often not used to ensure care in the least restrictive setting. The availability of Medicaid funds often serves as an incentive to keep children with special needs in hospitals or nursing homes, when foster home placements might be more appropriate.

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Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act requirements to deinstitutionalize status offenders and dependent and neglected children have been poorly monitored. And there has been little attention given to ensuring that appropriate services are available for children leaving institutions.

Only limited attention has been given at the federal level to the quality of care provided to children out of their homes.

There are a number of federal programs that provide funds to meet the special needs of institutionalized children. But there has been no federal effort to follow the total federal dollars going into institutions to determine the extent to which they are meeting children's needs or whether in some instances the various programs may be working at cross-purposes. Frequently, inadequate attention is paid to the quality of the federally reimbursed care these children receive.

Federal enforcement of existing child welfare laws is virtually nonexistent.

Despite recent GAO documentation of abuses in the AFDC Foster Care and Title IV–B programs,[11] HEW has taken no corrective action. Further, no one is systematically following up violations identified by the HEW Audit Agency in its extensive review of the AFDC Foster Care Program.[12]

Federal leadership in monitoring discrimination in programs affecting out-of-home children is minimal.

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color or national origin in federally assisted programs. To date, however, although states receive in excess of $2.5 billion in federal funds for social services, the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) in HEW has never published policy guidelines for the states to use in monitoring the administration of social services programs. OCR conducts periodic surveys of nursing homes and hospitals in order to assess their compliance with Title VI, but has never conducted comparable surveys of child-placing and child-caring agencies. Similarly, there has been no coordinated effort to monitor compliance with Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 which prohibits discrimination against handicapped persons in federally assisted programs.

The administration of relevant federal programs is fragmented and unwieldy.

There are at least 34 federal programs administered by six different federal agencies that directly impact on the lives of children at risk of removal or in placement. Within HEW alone there are five different offices and numerous divisions with responsibility for these programs. But there is no formal mechanism for coordinating the agencies and offices with responsibility for these programs across federal departments. The division of responsibility between Washington and regional offices, with respect to individual programs, further fragments program authority.

Mechanisms for program and fiscal accountability for federal dollars are almost nonexistent.

Few federal laws require administrative agencies responsible for children at risk of removal or in placement to report to Congress and the public on the status of these children and their families, or on the impact of federal programs affecting them. There is no current federal effort to develop a unified data system appropriate for problem identification, planning and trend analysis about children at risk of removal or in placement.

The federal data collection effort is haphazard and often meaningless.

Very little useful comparable data are available on a national basis on children in out-of-home care, in spite of the fact that there are at least 20 data collection efforts conducted by or under contract with federal agencies which address this population. Reporting at the federal level concerning child welfare and adoption services has been voluntary and virtually useless.

The Decennial Census conducted by the Census Bureau is the only effort to obtain periodic data on the race of children out of their homes across systems. No statistics, however, tell anything about the comparative types or lengths of placements for minority and non-minority children, nor the comparative numbers of such children being returned home or adopted.

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[11] See, for example, General Accounting Office, "More Can Be Learned and Done About the Well-Being of Children" (Washington, D.C.: GAO, April 1976), and "Children in Foster Care Institutions: Steps Government Can Take to Improve Their Care" (Washington, D.C.: GAO, February 1977).

[12] See, for example, reports by the HEW Audit Agency's Philadelphia Regional Office, Review of AFDC Foster Care Program Administered by the Department of Public Welfare, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania (Washington, D.C.: HEW Audit Agency, Audit Control No. 60253–03, May 1976), and Report on the Aid to Families with Dependent Children Foster Care Program, Commonwealth of Virginia (Washington, D.C.: HEW Audit Agency, Audit Control No. 60253–03, June 1976). A list of the 27 states where audits have been scheduled and the status of the audits as of June 1, 1978 is set forth in Appendix B.

APPENDIX P

TRENDS AND ISSUES IN THE DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION OF YOUTHS IN TROUBLE

(By Paul Lerman)*

Instead of focusing exclusively on status offenders, or on youths adjudicated by a juvenile court, this paper summarizes trends and issues related to the differential institutional handling of all youths who are in trouble with the law of their jurisdiction, or who could be if the enforcement and judicial systems took official note of their behavior. Three categories of institutional handling of juveniles, usually treated separately, are discussed: juvenile correction, child welfare, and mental health. There have been significant reductions in long-term correctional handling of youths in trouble, but there have also been offsetting changes in the use of private correctional facilities, residential treatment institutions associated with child welfare, and psychiatric units of general and state hospitals. Seven factors contributing to the emergence of new modes of institutional handling are discussed: (1) shift in the balance between the public and private sectors, (2) increase in voluntary commitments, (3) permissive mixing of official and diagnostic labels, (4) transfer of legal responsibility, (5) redefinition of "acting out" behaviors, (6) increased use of mental health terminology and facilities, and (7) use of federal funds as an incentive to subsidize noncorrectional placements. The policy implications of empirical findings, particularly in regard to status offenders, are discussed in the concluding sections.

Since the late 1960s, interest in delinquency prevention has usually included recommendations for diversion and deinstitutionalization of juvenile offenders. In the following pages, I shall deal primarily with trends and issues related to the interest in reducing reliance on traditional correctional institutions, discussing deinstitutionalization from a broader perspective than is usually offered. Instead of focusing only on status offenders, or youths adjudicated by a juvenile court, I shall first address the differential institutional handling of all youths in trouble with the law of their jurisdiction, or those who could be affected if the law enforcement and judicial systems took official note of their behaviors; in a later section I shall relate this broad perspective to the recent emphasis on status offenders.

For the purpose of the discussion, I am considering deinstitutionalization of youths in trouble apart from any specific federal legislation, so that broad trends from 1950 to today can be understood. From this pragmatic, operational perspective, I will refer to deinstitutionalization as signifying a reduced reliance on the traditional institutions associated with juvenile correction without a corresponding increase in the use of other types of facilities.[1] The phrase "traditional juvenile institutions" refers primarily to detention facilities, jails, public training schools, ranches, and camps. Nontraditional institutions, where juveniles in trouble with the law (or potentially so) could be placed, include three categories of out-of-home living arrangements: private juvenile correctional facilities, child welfare residences, and mental health facilities.

The departure here from the usual approach to correction, child welfare, and mental health as completely separate fields is necessary to make clear the available evidence on the general patterns, over time, of juvenile institutionaliza-

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[1] For alternative approaches to defining deinstitutionalization, see the following: Leona Bachrach, "Deinstitutionalization: An Analytical Perspective" (Rockville, Md.: National Institute of Mental Health, 1976), Series D, No. 4; and General Accounting Office, "Returning the Mentally Disab'ed to the Community" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, January 1977).

tion. There have been significant reductions in long-term traditional correctional handling of youths in trouble, but it would be misleading to conclude that deinstitutionalization has been achieved. For there have also been offsetting changes in the use of private correctional facilities, residential treatment associated with child welfare, and psychiatric units of general and state hospitals. In effect, there has emerged, in unplanned fashion, a new youth-in-trouble institutional system that includes old and new institutions from all three fields: juvenile correction, child welfare, and mental health. A significant implicit assumption of this system is that the behaviors resulting in placement decisions could, under statutes in all fifty states, bring youths within the jurisdiction of a juvenile court.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RESIDENTS IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE JUVENILE CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES: 1950–74[1]

	1950		1960		1970		1974	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Public	29,042	79	38,359	84	57,691	87	33,732	52
Private	7,944	21	7,336	16	8,766	13	30,952	48
Total	36,986	.....	45,695	.....	66,457	.....	64,684	.....

[1] Excluding detention shelter.

Source: Data for 1950, 1960, and 1970 are based upon Bureau of the Census, Institutional Population, 1950, vol. 4, pt. 4, ch. C; Bureau of the Census, Inmates of Institutions, 1960, vol. 2, pc. (2)-8A; and Bureau of the Census, Persons in Institutions and Other Group Quarters, 1970, final report, vol. 4E, pc. (2). 1974 data are based upon LEAA, Children in Custody, 1974.

REASONS FOR THE EMERGENCE OF THE NEW SYSTEM

Shift in balance between public and private sector

The custody, care, and treatment of delinquent youths has been increasingly shared by the public sector with private organizations (mainly nonprofit, but also some proprietary). An informal division of labor, whereby private organizations concentrated on younger children and youths classified as dependent, neglected, or mildly deviant, emerged in the latter half of the nineteenth century and continued for the first half of the twentieth.[2] However, that situation has apparently changed: Recent LEAA data reveal that between 43 and 48 percent of all youths resident in nondetention correctional facilities are living under private auspices.[3] Compared with the census data of 1950, when only 21 percent of such youths were being handled by nonpublic organizations, this is a sizable shift (see Table 1). Secondary analysis of recent data reveals that private facilities providing long-term care accounted for approximately 54 percent of all juvenile correctional admissions.[4]

[2] See the following reports of the decennial census for data supporting this conclusion: U.S., Department of the Interior, Bureau of the Census, Report on Defective, Dependent and Delinquent Classes of the Population of the U.S. as Returned at the Tenth Census: 1880 (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, 1888); "Benevolent Institutions," 1904; "Prisoners and Juvenile Delinquents in Institutions," 1904 "Benevolent Institutions," 1910; "Prisoners and Juvenile Delinquents in the U.S.," 1910; "Children under Institutional Care," 1923; "Children under Institutional Care and in Foster Homes," 1933; "Juvenile Delinquents in Public Institutions," 1933; "Special Report on Institutional Population 14 Years Old and Over," 1940; "Institutional Population," 1950; vol. 4, Social Reports, pt. 2, ch. C; "Inmates of Institutions," 1960; Final Report, pc (2)–8A; and "Persons in Institutions and Other Group Quarters," 1970, Final Report, pc (2)–4E.

[3] Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, "Children in Custody," 1974 (Washington, D.C.: National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, February 1977); and "Children in Custody," 1975, issued in October 1977.

[4] This is an estimated figure, since LEAA has not provided admissions data for the surveys of 1974 and 1975. The 1971 LEAA survey ("Children in Custody," 1971) reported admissions data, by facility type, that could be analyzed to yield ratios of admissions per youth reported in residence. These ratios were used to project the estimated number of admissions for each facility type. The following ratios were obtained with 1971 data and projected for 1974 public and private correctional institutions: detention—42.01; shelter care—26.91; diagnostic/reception centers—12.87; training schools—1.99; ranches, forestry camps, farms, and schools—2.73; and group homes/halfway houses—2.64.

TABLE 2.—TYPES OF YOUNGSTERS LIVING IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE JUVENILE CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES: 1974–75

[In percent]

	1974		1975	
	Private	Public	Private	Public
Adjudicated delinquent	31	70	36	73
In need of supervision (PINS)	16	10	16	10
Pending disposition/transfer	2	17	2	15
Voluntary commitment	24	2	22	1
Dependent/neglected	22	1	18	1
Emotionally disturbed, mentally retarded, other	5	0	7	<1
N equals	31, 749	44, 922	27, 290	46, 980

Source: LEAA, Children in Custody, 1975, pp. 18–19.

Increase in voluntary commitments

Private organizations, unlike public institutions, can take referrals for "placement" from a variety of sources, both public and private. Admissions need not be ordered by law enforcement or a court, as is the case for most public juvenile correctional placements.[5] Many youths are "voluntarily" committed by parents or guardians, or by welfare agencies—without going through a formal commitment procedure. Recent data (1974–75) from the LEAA-sponsored surveys indicate that juvenile correctional facilities classified as private receive 22 to 24 percent of their residents from such commitments (see Table 2). While the circumstances contributing to these voluntary commitments remain unknown, one might reasonably infer that these youths could otherwise be adjudicated as delinquent, officially labeled as persons in need of supervision, or classified as dependent/neglected. In practice, a voluntary commitment can be synonymous with "juvenile court diversion" to a nonpublic institution.

Permissive mixing of official and diagnostic labels

Private facilities can, in practice, mix a broader array of youths in trouble than can public institutions. Private agencies' official papers of legal incorporation rarely restrict them to housing only youths subject to specific official labels. Thus, the mix of youths confined within the same facilities, revealed in a 1975 LEAA nationwide survey, probably cannot be attacked as violating any of the states' statutes:

	Percent
Adjudicated delinquents	36
Persons in need of supervision	16
Dependent/neglected	18
All other classifications (including voluntary commitments)	30

[See Table 2.]

While the most recent federal guidelines (promulgated in August 1978) on commingling of various youth populations could change this kind of diverse population mix, available evidence indicates that monitoring of private facilities is not systematic. A 1978 report by the United States General Accounting Office revealed that only four states bothered to monitor private facilities containing any juvenile delinquents.[6]

Transfer of legal responsibility

The movement to take status offenders out of public correctional institutions has often been accompanied by a transfer of legal responsibility from probation and correctional authorities to public child welfare officials. In 1974, 82 percent of the private correctional facilities received welfare department referrals.[7] Historically, public welfare officials have made extensive use of private child welfare agencies; many public child welfare authorities were originally organized to take children from almshouses and place them into "benevolent" child care insti-

[5] See Mark M. Levin and Rosemary C. Sarri, "Juvenile Delinquency: A Comparative Analysis of Legal Codes in the United States" (Ann Arbor, Mich.: National Assessment of Juvenile Corrections, June 1974).

[6] General Accounting Office, "Removing Status Offenders from Secure Facilities: Federal Leadership and Guidance Are Needed" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, June 1978).

[7] LEAA, "Children in Custody," 1974.

tutions or foster homes.[8] State and county public welfare authorities have been purchasing "care services" from private institutions since the post-Civil War period. This pattern has continued into the twentieth century. Recent surveys indicate that 83 to 86 percent of all residents of traditional child-caring institutions are in private facilities.[9] Various types of youths in trouble receiving protective services" from state or county welfare authorities are, therefore, most likely to be placed in private "foster care" institutions—some of these classified as correctional and others categorized as child welfare facilities.

TABLE 3.—ADMISSIONS TO STATE/COUNTY MENTAL HOSPITALS OF PERSONS WITH NO PRIOR INPATIENT CARE, BY AGE: 1962–75

(Rate per 100,000 population)

Age group	1962	1965	1969	1972	1975
Under 15	6.0	7.5	11.0	13.5	15.5
15 to 24	76.9	88.6	114.4	95.1	91.8
25 to 34	105.1	118.5	111.4	103.8	92.2
35 to 44	96.0	106.6	134.3	107.2	74.6
45 to 54	91.2	96.6	106.8	83.3	59.3
55 to 64	82.4	86.1	1.00.3	63.3	42.8
65 plus	163.7	146.5	100.6	69.2	36.7
All ages	70.6	75.1	82.1	68.2	57.1

Source: Adapted from National Institute of Mental Health, Statistical Note 145: Changes in the Age and Sex Composition of First Admissions to State and County Mental Hospitals, United States, 1962–1975 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1978), p. 9.

Redefinition of offending behavior as "acting out"

Since the emergence of the child guidance clinic in the 1920s there has been an increasing tendency to redefine delinquent-type behaviors as "acting out" or as a symptom of an emotional disturbance.[10] The recent separation of status behaviors from the broad delinquency definitions found in many state statutes does not appear to have altered this long-term trend. Both public and private child welfare agencies tend to concur in these diagnostic definitions; since the early 1960s, the placement of delinquents has been theoretically linked to a presumed need for "residential treatment in a structured setting."[11] While residential treatment settings are usually classified as mental health or child-caring institutions, not as correctional facilities, the residents are also subject to a "high level of structure."[12]

Greater use of mental health system

Recently, the mental health profession has extended its services beyond patients hospitalized with obvious psychiatric disturbances to persons not usually cared for in a hospital—alcoholics, drug users, and adolescents with a variety of "transient" behavioral problems. The latter have been admitted into state and

[8] Robert H. Brenner et al., "Children and Youth in America: A Documentary History," 2 vols. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1971).

[9] Children's Bureau, "Foster Care of Children: Major National Trends and Prospects" (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1966); and 1970 census data.

[10] In 1921 there were 7 child guidance clinics, but by 1927 there were 102, according to James Leiby, "A History of Social Welfare and Social Work in the United States" (New York: Columbia University Press, 1978), p. 184. Many of these clinics were initiated and supported with "seed money" from the Commonwealth Fund. See "Commonwealth Fund: Historical Sketch, 1918–1962" (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1963); Brenner et al., "Children and Youth in America"; and Lee N. Robins, "Deviant Children Grown Up" (Baltimore, Md.: Williams and Wilkins, 1966), p. 14.

[11] Placements in juvenile institutions (as distinguished from psychiatric hospitals) of the "emotionally disturbed" were first enumerated in the 1960 census. See Bureau of Census, Inmates of Institutions, 1960; Children's Bureau, "Foster Care of Children"; and National Institute of Mental Health, "Utilization of Psychiatric Facilities by Children: Current Status, Trends, Implications" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, 1968), Series B, No. 1, Public Health Service Publication No. 1868. For a broad overview of residential treatment centers for children, see the following: Anthony N. Maluccio and Wilma D. Marlow, "Residential Treatment of Emotionally Disturbed Children: A review of the Literature," Social Service Review, June 1972, pp. 230–51; and James K. Whittaker, "The Changing CbSaracter of Residential Care: An Ecological Perspective," Social Service Review, March 1978, pp. 21–37.

[12] A good example of this theoretical orientation can be found in a 1975 study prepared for the New York State Board of Social Welfare by Blanche Bernstein et al., "Foster Care Needs and Alternatives to Placement"; this study is reprinted in U.S. Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, and U.S. House, Subcommittee on Select Education of the Committee on Education and Labor, "Foster Care: Problems and Issues," Joint Hearings Part 1 (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, Dec. 1, 1975), pp. 153–282.

county mental hospitals, psychiatric units of general hospitals, and private hospitals, as well as specialized children's psychiatric facilities.[13] While the commitment of all other age groups has decreased appreciably in public facilities, the number of young persons admitted since the early 1960s into these facilities has increased (see Table 3). Instead of being admitted because of classic psychiatric symptoms, the majority of juveniles entering hospitals most recently have been admitted because of general behavioral disorders: for example, transient situational disorders, childhood disorders, personality disorders, and drug disorders (see Table 4). These nonclassical diagnoses often indicate behaviors that could result in court adjudication or other formal disposition.

Use of Federal funds as an incentive

Finally, since 1962, federal funding has been available to subsidize out-of-home placements, provided they are not in a traditional public correctional institution.[14] Federal funds for placements are now forthcoming under the following titles in the Social Security Act: aid to dependent children, child welfare, social services, Medicaid, and supplemental security income.[15] These diverse funding sources permit private organizations to compete with one another for 100 percent occupancy of beds for children and youths referred by probation, parole, child welfare, mental health, private doctors and lawyers, and other voluntary sources. In practice, this also means that diverse placement agencies compete with one another for the use of the same facilities. In Massachusetts, for example, the state correctional agency associated with closing down the state training schools, the Division of Youth Services, spent $7 million and the state child welfare agency spent $10 million purchasing services from the *same* providers of residential custody, care, and treatment.[16] An outside evaluation of the Massachusetts system termed it "the children's puzzle": Each agency places children differently. They apply different selection criteria. Yet the children wind up in the same facilities."[17]

TABLE 4.—PRIMARY DIAGNOSIS OF PERSONS ADMITTED TO PSYCHIATRIC INPATIENT UNITS OF STATE/COUNTY HOSPITALS AND NONFEDERAL GENERAL HOSPITALS, BY AGE: 1975

[In percent]

Primary diagnosis	General hospital psychiatric units[1]		State/county mental hospitals[2]	
	Under 18	All ages	Under 18	All ages
Classic symptoms	42.0	74.0	27.0	53.1
1. Organic brain disorder	(3)	3.7	2.8	5.3
2. Depression	17.7	37.8	2.7	11.7
3. Schizophrenia	16.4	[illegible]	17.7	33.7
4. Other psychosis	0.8	[illegible]	(3)	0.9
5. Neurosis	7.0	[illegible]	1.8	1.5
General/behavioral	57.2	26.0	[illegible]	46.9
1. Personality disorder	8.0	5.8	10.4	6.8
2. Childhood disorder	10.8	0.9	54.0	4.9
3. Transient situational disorder	26.7	5.1		
4. Other[4]	6.0	3.7	6.2	3.8
5. Alcohol disorder	(3)	7.0	(3)	27.7
6. Drug disorder	5.7	3.5	1.2	3.7
N equals	42,690	515,537	25,252	385,237

[1] National Institute of Mental Health, Statistical Note No. 137 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, August 1977), p. 19, discharge data only.
[2] National Institute of Mental Health, Statistical Note No. 138 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, August 1977), p.11, admissions data only.
[3] Minimal.
[4] For general hospital, "other" remains undifferentiated. For persons under 18 in State/county hospitals, "other" is 5 percent diagnosed as mentally retarded and 1.2 percent undifferentiated; for persons of all ages in State/county hospitals, "other" is 1.9 percent mentally retarded and 1.9 percent undifferentiated.

[13] National Institute of Mental Health, "Psychiatric Services and the Changing Institutional Scene, 1950–1985" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, 1977), Series B, No. 12; and National Center for Health Services Inpatient Health Facilities (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, 1972–76), Series, 14.
[14] Jessica S. Pers, "Somebody Else's Children: A Report of the Foster Care System in California," prepared for the University of California School of Law (Berkeley) Childhood and Government Projects; reprinted in U.S. Senate, Foster Care, pp. 441–605.
[15] U.S. Senate, Committee on Finance, "The Social Security Act and Related Laws" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, Apr. 30, 1978).
[16] "The Children's Puzzle: A Study of Services to Children in Massachusetts" (Boston: University of Massachusetts Institute for Governmental Services, February 1977).
[17] Ibid., p. 20.

The Massachusetts Division of Youth Services used LEAA funds as the primary federal source, while the child welfare authorities relied primarily on Titles 4 and 20 (of the Social Security Act) as their granting source. Other states, as well as Massachusetts, attempt to obtain a maximum amount of federal funds, while simultaneously providing a minimum amount of state or local funding.[18] Since placements in a traditional state training school would rarely qualify for maintenance or service payments, according to federal statutes or regulations, there is an increasing incentive to redefine youths in trouble according to diagnostic categories that will legitimate placement in facilities deemed appropriate for reimbursement. The perception that a youth has an emotional problem—apart from the fact that he or she may be in trouble with local or state officials—can provide a rationale for reimbursements in nontraditional placements.

Regarding federal sources for funding, it is apparent that child welfare, rather than LEAA, is the primary external source of funds for residential alternatives to traditional correctional institutions. While federal bookkeeping records for out-of-home placements for youths in trouble are at least as untidy and imprecise as state data, I have estimated that in 1975 federal child welfare titles for alternative institutional maintenance and services accounted for $234 million for youths in trouble, compared with a maximum of $55 million that might have been spent by LEAA—or a ratio of approximately 4 to 1.[19]

ASSESSMENT OF TRENDS

The most reliable government census available for all public and private institutions reveals several nationwide trends for the period between 1950 and 1975.

TABLE 5.—TOTAL POPULATION IN INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT/NEGLECTED YOUTHS: 1933-73

	1933	1950	1960	1970	1973
Population	140,000	93,300	73,306	47,594	37,783

Source: Data for 1933, 1950, 1960, and 1970 are based upon Bureau of the Census, Children under Institutional Care and in Forster Homes, 1933; Institutional Population, 1950; Inmates of Institutions, 1960; and Persons in Institutions and Other Group Quarters, 1970. 1973 data are from NCHS, Inpatient Health Facilities as Reported from the 1973 MFI Survey (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, May 1976), series 14, No. 16.

Juvenile correctional system

Deinstitutionalization has not occurred within the short-term correctional facilities—jails and detention—during the twenty-five years; instead there have been sharp rises in the numbers confined over the entire period.[20] In traditional long-term, public facilities—such as training schools—there was a sharp rise in population from 1950 to 1970, then a moderate loss between 1970 and 1975; overall trends indicate diminished use of this institutional type, controlling for general population increases. The private facilities have registered sharp gains since 1970 (see Table 1). Combining all of the data, and taking into account admissions, it appears that, except for public training schools, the overall trend (since 1960) is increased use of jails and detention and private correctional facilities.

Child welfare system

The current welfare system refers primarily to two types of facilities, as classified by the U.S. Bureau of the Census and the National Center of Health Statistics: institutions for dependent/neglected children and those for juveniles who are emotionally disturbed.

Using the most recent data available (1973), there is strong evidence that populations in the first type of institution were sharply reduced between 1950 and 1973 (see Table 5). This sharp drop is a continuation of a much longer downward trend that began in the 1930s. While all age groups have probably

[18] See Paul Lerman, "Deinstitutionalization: A Cross-Problem Analysis" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, forthcoming); and Pers, Somebody Else's Children.

[19] The following sources were used: General Accounting Office, "Children in Foster-Care Institutions" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, Apr. 9, 1975); Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, "Program Announcement: Deinstitutionalization of Status Offenders" (Washington, D.C.; Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Operation Task Group, March 1975); and U.S. Senate, "Foster Care," p. 312.

[20] Bureau of the Census "Institutional Population," 1950; "Inmates of Institutions," 1960; "Persons in Institutions and Other Group Quarters," 1970, and LEAA, "Children in Custody," 1974.

been affected, it is the younger children—under age twelve—who have been the major beneficiaries of the reduced reliance on the traditional child welfare institution.

TABLE 6.—DISTRIBUTION OF JUVENILES UNDER EIGHTEEN IN INTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT/NEGLECTED AND EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED, BY RESIDENCE, ADMISSIONS, AND CUSTODY/CARE/TREATMENT EPISODES: 1970–71 AND 1973

	1970–71				1973			
	Dependent/neglected		Emotionally disturbed		Dependent/neglected		Emotionally disturbed	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Resident trends [1]	53, 867	61	28, 481	39	36, 876	51	34, 759	49
Admissions trends [2]	46, 499	56	31, 456	44	[3] 39, 089	47	[3] 44, 492	53
Custody/care/treatment (CCT) episodes [4]	[3] 90, 366	58	[3] 64, 937	42	[3] 75, 965	49	[3] 79, 243	51

[1] Data for 1970–71 for youths in institutions for dependent/neglected are from Bureau of the Census, Persons in Institutions and Other Group Quarters, 1970, p. 11. The same data for 1973 are from NCHS, Development and Maintenance of National Inventory of Hospitals and Institutions, series 14, No. 15, May 1976. Data for 1970–71 and 1973 for youngsters in institutions for the emotionally disturbed are from the same NCHS series, nos. 4 and 16, 1973 and 1976.

[2] Data based upon 1973 admissions/residence ratios for all persons obtained by the author from NCHS; ratio is 1.06 for institutions for dependent/neglected, and 1.28 for institutions for emotionally disturbed. All estimates are based on multiplication of these ratios by residence.

[3] Estimate.

[4] Adding residence count to admissions during the year produces a sum of all "episodes" during that year. The meaning of CCT episode is comparable to the NIMH "inpatient care episode."

Between 1950 and 1970, many facilities for dependent/neglected juveniles were transformed into residential treatment centers for emotionally disturbed youths. This new type of institution, increasingly chosen over other alternatives, has housed growing numbers since data were first published in the mid-1960s.[21] However, this increase has not been sufficient to offset the sharp drop in use of the first type of facility; therefore, child welfare may be seen as experiencing a moderate drop in institutional use overall (see Table 6).

Mental health system

Unlike the other categories, the mental health system has gained increasing numbers of youths in both short-term and long-term facilities. However, it appears that the use of state and county hospitals may have peaked; some of the sharp gains there have been reduced (although not eliminated) in the past few years. Yet this is more than offset by continued growth in three other mental health facilities: private psychiatric hospitals, psychiatric units of general hospitals, and inpatient units of community health centers.[22] Since these latter units are usually located in general hospitals, it is possible to refer to the general hospital/community mental health center combination as the short-term, and private and state/county psychiatric hospitals as the long-term, units. Overall, the mental health system represents the fastest growing category of institutional care—on both a short-term and a long-term basis.

Total youth-in-trouble system

The best estimate that can be made, using available data for admissions as well as one-day residence counts, is that the total rate of confinement per 100,000 youths was probably higher in 1975 than in 1950. This conclusion means, of course, that any shifts away from certain kinds of institutions have been matched by increases in other types of institutionalization.

Accompanying these demographic trends, there appear to be significant shifts in auspices legal accountability, ease of crossing system boundaries, emphasis on psychological treatment, and modes of funding. The evidence is quite persuasive that the private sector (publicly subsidized by welfare via purchase of

[21] Donnell Pappenfort and Dee Morgan Kilpatrick, "A Census of Children's Residential Institutions in the United States, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands: 1966," vol. 1 (Chicago: University of Chicago, School of Social Service Administration, 1970), p. 41; Maluccio and Marlow, "Residential Treatment of Emotionally Disturbed Children," p. 23; and National Center for Health Statistics, "Inpatient Health Facilities," Series 14.

[22] The following reports of the National Institute of Mental Health were used to reach these conclusions: "Psychiatric Services and the Changing Institutional Scene," Series A, No. 18, p. 2; Series B, No. 5, pp. 31 and 39; statistical notes 137 (p. 19), 138 (p. 11), 139 (p. 5), and 146 (p. 6); in addition, see President's Commission on Mental Health, Task Panel Reports, vol. 2 (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, 1978), p. 101.

custody, care, and treatment arrangements) is now a significant factor in long-term correction, continues to be the dominant institutional resource in child welfare, and even plays a significant role in private and general hospitals, as well as community mental health center inpatient units.

STANDARDS FOR DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION

For purposes of analysis, I have treated all facility types alike, but the standards of deinstitutionalization, as partially reflected in the August 1978 guidelines of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), would not countenance this approach. In defining compliance with the standard of least restrictive environment, the guidelines make use of a combination of five institutional characteristics—size, distance from home, degree of security, restricted population mix, and community programming [32]—to determine whether status offenders and nonoffenders are correctly placed.[34] For the purpose of analysis, these standards could be used to assess all juvenile facilities.

In the absence of systematic surveys, it is difficult to specify precisely the degree to which juvenile correctional, child welfare, and mental health facilities would diverge from the OJJDP standards. It is generally agreed that compliance with putting an end to the commingling of delinquent with noncriminal youths is difficult for many private facilities. As was noted previously, the confinement of various types of youths in trouble in a single facility is a salient characteristic of the new youth-in-trouble system.

If the OJJDP definition of secure facility is used, then a majority of residential types for nondelinquents that classify themselves as open would be unable to meet the official interpretation of the security standard: "If exit points are open, but residents authoritatively prohibited from leaving at any time without approval, it would be a secure facility." [35] In addition, many phychiatric units for adolescents within general and state hospitals contain locked wards —and youths are free neither to move inside the facility nor to leave at will.

Many facilities would also be hard pressed to meet the standard of proximity to a youth's home and family. While short-term facilities would usually be able to comply, many long-term facilities built before 1970 were deliberately located away from urban centers. Only by arbitrarily defining "near" as "within a day's drive" could be a sizable number of facilities be described as community based.

Many facilities that pride themselves on providing "a structured setting," "milieu therapy," "residential treatment," or "a therapeutic environment" employ or supervise their own teachers and recreation leaders—and would consequently be unable to yield evidence of community programming. For example, a recent study of eighteen facilities used as "foster care institutions" for children with "mental and delinquent problems" found that only four had children attending community public schools exclusively.[36]

Restricted size, too, is a criterion that all types of facilities could have difficulty meeting. The standard for size cited by OJJDP regulations is under 21 youths. Even though this figure hardly conveys an image of a small facility, the only new type of institution that appears to come close to meeting the criterion is the group home. LEAA data indicate that in 1974 and 1975 public and private group homes averaged about 10 to 12 youths per facility; ranches, forestry camps; and other camps averaged 43 to 49 each; and training schools averaged 67 residents per private and 137 per public facility.[37] However, only about 20 percent of the correctional placements in 1974 were in group homes.[38]

More precise data on size are available for the two types of child welfare facilities: those for dependent/neglected youngsters and those for emotionally disturbed youths. The older type of child welfare institution confined only 3 percent of its charges in 1973 in residences with fewer than 15 youths, and an additional 5 percent in facilities with under 25—amounting to a total of 8 percent of youths in living arrangements close to the OJJDP standard. Emotionally disturbed youths fared somewhat better, but not much, since in 1973 only 12 percent were living in facilities with less than 25 residents. If a less stringent standard of 50 residents is used, then 74 percent of dependent/neglected youths

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[32] Federal Register, "Formula Grant Provisions of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as Amended," vol. 43, no. 159 (Washington D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, Aug. 16, 1978), pp. 36402–10.

[34] "Nonoffenders" refers primarily to dependent and neglected children, as defined by a juvenile court.

[35] Federal Register, "Formula Grant Provisions."

[36] GAO, "Children in Foster-Care Institutions."

[37] LEAA, "Children in Custody," 1974, and "Children in Custody," 1975.

[38] Ibid.

and 72 percent of emotionally disturbed youths lived in facilities housing more than that number. In fact, 42 to 44 percent lived with 100 or more other youths.[28]

This brief review, using one set of standards for assessing juvenile facilities, indicates that a majority of youths in trouble who are not officially adjudicated (but are living in an out-of-home placement with five or more youths) are probably living in a facility that is not the least restrictive choice. As this analysis discloses, the most controversial criterion—commingling—could be set aside and a majority of placed youths would still be situated in less than ideal living arrangements. Many environments might not be as confining as traditional training schools or locked hospital wards, but it is likely that they are not the least restrictive alternative possible.

DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION OF STATUS OFFENDERS: POLICY ISSUES

Earlier, I defined deinstitutionalization so that all types of youths were included. In doing so, I assumed that reductions in institutionalization could affect youngsters under the care of child welfare and mental health authorities, not only correction. This approach to deinstitutionalization is quite distinct from the narrow definition associated with the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974. A state can be deemed to be in compliance with OJJDP regulations if it can provide evidence that the requisite reductions in institutionalization are occurring in traditional correctional facilities: in effect, regulations based on this narrow definition of deinstitutionalization remain silent about the use of institutions classified as nontraditional, particularly those associated with child welfare or mental health. The overall rate of institutionalization may remain unchanged, or even increase, yet a state can still be judged to be in compliance with OJJDP regulations if the traditional correctional system displays the appropriate rate reductions.

On the basis of the best available evidence, it appears that most states relying on OJJDP funds have chosen to follow a narrow definition of deinstitutionalization. Theoretically, all states could choose to employ a broader definition to guide their policies toward youths in trouble. There is nothing in the OJJDP regulations, or in other federal programs, preventing states from doing this. Failure to go beyond the OJJDP definition indicates that a restrictive—rather than a broad—approach has been favored.

The issue of whether to favor a narrow or broad approach to deinstitutionalization is apparently related to another strategic issue: whether to give priority to promoting services associated with the concept of "least restrictive alternatives" or to promoting the concept of "community-based alternatives." To many, the latter term is synonymous with deinstitutionalization, since this has been the accepted linguistic means for specifying how deinstitutionalization goals could be accomplished. In practice, the term has been treated as elastic, stretching to cover institutional "communities" in Texas housing Illinois children, institutional communities in western Massachusetts housing youths from eastern Massachusetts, a youth service bureau in a youngster's neighborhood, a residential treatment facility in a distant county, a secure mental hospital ward in a state hospital, and a group home on the grounds of a large hospital complex. As long as these alternatives are deemed noncorrectional, a narrow deinstitutionalization policy could accept them as examples of community-based facilities.

Regarding life inside many community-based alternatives, the Children's Defense Fund recently reported abusive conditions in settings for children in seven states visited (Arizona, California, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Ohio, South Carolina, and South Dakota) as part of a national study:

> Children are abused in institutions and *in other group settings*. The abuse takes many forms, not only physical abuse, but the overuse of drug therapies of punitive and unmonitored seclusion and of severe behavioral restrictions. Despite public concern about familial abuse, no state visited has set up specific mechanisms, nor issued specific guidelines to monitor and eliminate institutional abuse of children[29] (emphasis added).

These findings about institutional abuse are not unique to these seven states. A recent class action suit filed against the state of Louisiana charged that children placed in a variety of outlof-state private child care facilities (pri-

[28] These data are based on special computer runs made available by staff of the National Center for Health Statistics.

[29] Children's Defense Fund, "Children without Homes—An Examination of Public Responsibility to Children in Out of Home Care: An Overview" (Washington, D.C.: Children's Defense Fund, 1978).

marily in Texas) were being mistreated and denied remedial services.[31] Since "other group settings" and "private facilities" are often used as descriptions of community-based alternatives, it is likely that in many cases the destructive aspects of institutionalization are also occurring in alternative placements. A narrow deinstitutionalization policy that is unconcerned about the living arrangements of such placements can serve as an unwilling ally to recycling youths in trouble into old institutional forms under the guise of new labels.

The policy of promoting the least restrictive alternative is, in contrast, associated with a strong preference for avoiding all semblance of institutional living arrangements. This policy was first enunciated in 1972, by federal courts deciding cases involving mental health and retardation. As set forth in a variety of decisions, states that undertake to provide custody, care, and treatment are obligated to provide these functions in the least intrusive manner, in the least restrictive living environment, and in a setting segregated from a normal residential community to the least possible extent. This judicial policy has been buttressed by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. States and local educational authorities using this source of funding are mandated to provide children with "special education and related services" in "the least restrictive environment commensurate to their needs."[32] Children who are emotionally disturbed as well as those with learning disabilities are included in the list of the handicapped. Since education is required by virtually all children placed outside the home, this national policy, if vigorously pursued, could influence placement plans and programs in a variety of fields.

If we base a deinstitutionalization policy on the right of children to receive publicly subsidized care and services in the least intrusive, least restrictive, most integrated manner, then it would appear reasonable to pursue this approach in *all* fields. A broad approach to a least restrictive policy would be congruent with the position that children who are defined by federal statute as *nonoffenders* are entitled to equal application of the law—regardless of whether they are in a correctional, child welfare, or mental health category.

In practice, this type of deinstitutionalization policy could legitimate granting funding priority to children and youths living in their own homes, or with relatives, guardians, or adopted parents. Home-based, rather than general community-based, care and services could be accorded the highest funding priority. Any out-of-home placement would have to be justified by evidence that every other reasonable type of care and service had been actually attempted, as well as be required to meet conditions set forth by a state's juvenile code.

By home-based care and services I am not referring solely to traditional counseling, nor am I referring to help that only takes place within a household. Rather, the funding priority would be geared toward providing a variety of financial, social, and personal supports and services to youths residing in their own homes and neighborhoods. Some of the supports and services I have in mind are similar to Margaret Rosenheim's suggestions regarding "normalized" services for "juvenile nuisances":

> Counseling is of doubtful merit, as a sole or predominant service; and many agencies lack other resources that are commonly advocated for ebullient miscreants—space and equipment for sports, machine work and repairs, crafts, and so forth; educational supplements of a creative character; staff experienced in dealing with defiant, potentially threatening clients. Juvenile requirements range from job preparation and placement to learning household and childcare routines, recreational opportunities, and perhaps induction into rewarding hobbies. The range could be as broad as the diversity evidenced among the young. . . .[33]

CONCLUSION

The pursuit of a least restrictive support and service strategy, within a broad approach to deinstitutionalization policy, might appear overly ambitious to some. They might argue that extending concern about the intended and unintended impacts of policy changes beyond correction to child welfare and mental health

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[31] Gary v. Cherry et al., 437 F. Supp. 209 (E.D. La. 1976).
[32] U.S. Senate, Subcommittee on the Handicapped of the Committee on Labor, "Education of the Handicapped Act as Amended through December 31, 1975" (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Printing Office, August 1976).
[33] Margaret K. Rosenheim, "Notes on Helping: Normalizing Juvenile Nuisances," Social Service Review, June 1976, p. 184.

may involve correction-oriented persons in spheres where they have minimal influence. While there may be a good deal of truth to this criticism, it can still be useful for strategically located persons and organizations to play the role of stimulating concern about the interrelated impacts of policies originating within distinct categories of support and services.

At the state government level it would be useful to have persons concerned about how Title 20 funds, Title 4 foster care funds, and Medicaid support, as well as LEAA and OJJDP dollars, are expended on behalf of, or against, a broad deinstitutionalization policy for children. In 1976, for example, approximately 40 percent of federal AFDC foster care maintenance funds were spend for institutional care—"primarily because of mental or delinquency problems." [34] Is there anyone in a state's government who knows or cares about how that state compares with this national figure, and whether the distribution of dollars is promoting, rather than reducing, the institutionalization of youths in trouble? Similar questions can, of course, be posed about all of the other funding sources, since they all provide dollars that directly and indirectly promote or deter out-of-home placements. While the answers might not interest the persons responsible for managing the grant programs, it is conceivable that state legislators and staff, the governor's office, citizens groups, and a variety of local service organizations might be interested. Accurate empirical information may not directly induce policy changes—but it can help to clarify the issues so funding and program debates can begin at the state level.

It is apparent that pursuing a broad deinstitutionalization policy can engender, or lend support to, an array of unorthodox strategies for service and change. This is not surprising, since what is being proposed is a way of redefining the problem to be addressed, setting forth new assumptions and goals, choosing new funding priorities, and even gathering new types of information.

Because significant decisions about individual cases tend to be largely decided at the local level, there is much discretionary power that can be mobilized by public and private organizations functioning outside the state capital. Discretion is, of course, another form of power—latent power to act or not to act in specific situations.[35] Depending on how discretion is actually exercised by police, court intake workers, probation staff, judges, child welfare and mental health personnel, and private organizations, policies can be implemented, modified, or even transformed. In recent years the array of discretionary activities has tended to become, in practice, even more interdependent than in the past. Whether we can agree to use this insight to consider the fate of all children in trouble—not just those who fit the correctional category—remains to be seen.

[34] GAO, "Children in Foster-Care Institutions."
[35] Kenneth C. Davis, "Discretionary Justice" (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1967).

APPENDIX Q

ADOLESCENT ABUSE AND NEGLECT: THE ROLE OF RUNAWAY YOUTH PROGRAMS

(By Ira S. Lourie, Patricia Campiglia, Linda Rich James and Jeanne Dewitt)*

One morning during an argument, Jane, a 14-year-old in St. Charles, Missouri, was repeatedly hit in the face by her step-mother. When Jane arrived at school her teacher noticed her bruised and swollen face and sent her to the school nurse, who gave her reassurance but did not take any official action within the school system. Fearful of returning home, Jane resorted to living on the streets and several weeks after the abuse had occurred she was found in a local hotel lobby overdosed on Quaaludes.

Jane was admitted to the hospital under jurisdiction of the juvenile justice system. Coordinated efforts among the Juvenile Office, the Division of Family Services (DFS) and Youth in Need, a runaway center with a federally funded adolescent maltreatment program, led to a phone call to the Youth in Need program requesting housing for Jane. The worker explained that DFS had become involved with Jane through a referral from the State Child Abuse/Neglect Hotline, and that she would be coming to the agency directly from the hospital.

Jane arrived at Youth in Need (YIN) accompanied by her father. During the intake period, Jane was very upset and depressed. She cried hysterically for about two hours, refused to talk with staff members or other resident youth and at times wandered aimlessly around the facility. She remained withdrawn for three days and declined to talk with staff, explaining that she was afraid of the consequences of revealing any information about her family. With the reassuring support of her counselor, Jane was gradually able to articulate her feelings of rejection.

Several days later, Jane's father reluctantly agreed to talk with a counselor. He expressed his desire to relinquish family ties with Jane since he felt her behavior was jeopardizing his marriage with her stepmother. Although he did not want to participate in family counseling or to have any further contact with Jane, he was finally persuaded by YIN and the Juvenile Office to further discuss Jane's situation. He dismissed the possibility of private placement for Jane, due to the expense, and he refused to provide any information concerning Jane's mother. He did agree to inquire as to the feasibility of Jane's living with other relatives; however, this was the last contact the agency had with Jane's father.

Jane's behavior during her 6-week stay at YIN has changed considerably. Gradually, she began to feel comfortable with the staff and to form relationships with other resident youth. Jane participates daily in individual counseling and in group counseling three times a week, and she has finally become able to talk about the events which brought her to Youth in Need. Since her father refuses to assume any responsibility for her, the Juvenile Judge has issued a court order giving temporary custody to the Division of Family Services. The Juvenile Offices, DFS and Youth in Need are currently working with Jane to determine an appropriate placement and to prepare her for it.

A few years ago this case might have ended very differently. Jane might never have found her way to a runaway shelter. Her abuse would probably have been overlooked and she would have been treated as an out-of-control child in the juvenile justice system or as a depressed, ill child in a mental hospital.

In 1975, the phenomenon of the abused adolescent was virtually unknown. Although millions of dollars had been spent studying child abuse, and countless more in developing and providing services to abusive and neglectful families,

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none had been targeted toward children between the ages of 12 and 18. The existence of abuse in this age group was at best underestimated and usually denied by professionals in the field.

When the National Institute of Mental Health began to explore the existence of this abused population through an informal telephone survey, only the runaway houses responded positively. Huckleberry House in Columbus, Ohio, offered initial insight with a story of a client whose parents had demanded that the child leave the runaway house and return home. Later, the boy came again to the house and stated that he ran away because his father was beating him. When the house staff reported this to the police, the child was asked, "What did you do to get your father to hit you?" When the boy rejected this line of questioning and tried to leave, he was restrained and his attempt to free himself resulted in his being arrested for assault.

Since then it has been reported by the American Humane Association that about 30 percent of all official reports of abuse and neglect concern children between the ages of 12 and 18.[1] Further, it has been shown that these children bring with them a collection of family and youth-oriented problems.[2] And it is now evident that there is a population of youth who run away from home because they are abused or neglected.

National statistics

The Youth Development Bureau, ACYF, which administers the Runaway Youth Act and provides support to runaway youth projects around the country, collects statistical information on why youths seek help from YDB-funded community-based runaway projects. (In addition to runaway youths, the projects serve other young people who are living at home and experiencing crises—pregnancy, school difficulties, problems in their relationship with family and friends.)

Over 20,000 youths were served by these projects during a recent 6-month period. The Youth Development Bureau estimates that as many as eight percent of them sought services because of abuse, and that approximately another six percent did so because they feared that they would be abused.

Two runaway houses, Special Approaches in Juvenile Assistance (SAJA) in Washington, D.C., and Youth Emergency Service (YES) in St. Louis, Missouri, received contracts from the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) to perform specialized incidence studies of abuse and neglect among their clients in 1975 and 1976. Prince George's County Hotline, Hyattsville, Maryland, performed a similar study. The results of these data analyses indicate that the incidence of violence toward youth and neglect in the families of runaway youth was much higher than projected. Using different definitions, SAJA and YES found that 30 percent and 28 percent, respectively, of their clients had experienced abuse or neglect. (Prince Georges Hotline found that one percent of all their calls concerned abuse.)

More important than the actual numbers, however, was the fact that rarely was abuse seen by the youth as the primary cause for running away—a fact which would indicate that the Youth Development Bureau estimates given earlier are probably lower than the actual incidence of abuse. Only when the two runaway houses began to ask specific questions about punishment patterns and violence in families were they able to learn more about the incidence of abuse. The children, although perceived by staff as being abused, saw themselves as deserving of the "punishment" that they received. After all, as they said, "I have done bad things." Most ran away from family turmoil and conflict rather than from an act of violence itself. Those who said they ran away from violence seem to have used it as a justification for leaving conflicted and tumultuous families.

These studies further explored the role of alternative youth services in dealing with adolescent abuse. SAJA emphasized that abused and neglected adolescents should be treated in the same way as other clients, stressing the development of trusting relationships with young people and the working out of family problems. On the other hand, YES staff members tended to focus on the abuse and they became so involved with relevant abuse and neglect agencies that their usual counseling approaches were less useful.

These early studies led to a belief that some aspects of alternative services, such as the use of runaway houses, were important components in intervention

[1] "National Analysis of Official Child Neglect and Abuse Reporting," Denver, American Humane Association, 1978.

[2] Ira Lourie, "Family Dynamics and the Abuse of Adolescents: A Case for A Developmental Phase Specific Model of Child Abuse," International Journal of Child Abuse and Neglect (in press).

with abusing families of teenagers. As a result, in 1977 NIMH initiated three demonstration projects which combined traditional protective services with alternative youth services.

In September 1978, the National Center for Child Abuse and Neglect (NCCAN) in the Children's Bureau, ACYF, funded several adolescent maltreatment demonstration projects. One of the grantees, the National Network of Runaway and Youth Services, Washington, D.C., chose two of its members—Youth in Need and Diogenes, in Sacramento, California—to conduct the demonstration program for adolescent maltreatment. This effort seeks to demonstrate:

Whether or not a community-based runaway program can develop effective services to deal with abused/neglected adolescents.

How a crisis-oriented, community-based program can work with the Division of Family Services, Protective Services Unit to provide more effective interventions to abused/neglected adolescents.

How community-based programs in different geographic and economic areas must adapt their programs to meet the needs of the target population.

Both projects will be evaluated to learn whether the services provided are successfully meeting the special needs of the target population.

Youth in Need, where Jane found refuge, is an example of a comprehensive community program. A private, non-profit, community-based agency, YIN has been dedicated to providing crisis services to adolescents and families since 1974. For the last three years YIN has received funds under the Runaway Youth Act to provide services to runaways and youths in crisis. While dealing with these troubled youth, the agency recognized that many had been abused and neglected and is now attempting to meet their special needs through the Adolescent Maltreatment Project. Currently, YIN is providing individual, group and family counseling, temporary/emergency shelter and 24-hour hotline services to youths between the ages of 12 and 18 and now is recruiting and interviewing potential foster parents for abused/neglected adolescents.

In addition, YIN has initiated a Community Abuse/Neglect Forum composed of individuals representing the social service systems with which an abused or neglected adolescent could be identified or involved—the local Division of Family Services, hospital emergency room staff, the juvenile court, police, mental health agencies and the district prosecuting attorney's office. Through the Forum, YIN seeks to close the gaps and remove the obstacles that prevent these services from being more helpful to maltreated youth. The Forum is also striving to educate professionals in the area of abuse and neglect and to delineate each person's role in identifyisg and dealing with adolescent abuse.

As a result of the community networking efforts by Youth in Need, referrals are being made to the Adolescent Maltreatment Project by agencies and individuals involved in the Forum. Special attention has been given to developing close relationships with the Division of Family Services, the protective services workers and juvenile officers, and groundwork has been laid with the local police chief and officers. For example, before the forum was established, there was confusion regarding police officers' roles and responsibilities in taking 20-hour protective custody of a youth who had been abused or neglected. As a result of the networking efforts, this issue has been clarified and the police chief issued a departmental memorandum outlining the current Child Abuse Law and the action that a police officer can take in these cases.

As in many communities, human service workers in St. Charles were not familiar with the special dynamics of adolescent abuse and so they did not often look past a youth's acting out behavior to consider the picture a youth might draw about his or her family. Because of this, many abused adolescents have been mislabeled as incorrigible, runaway, truant or "guilty" of some other status offense. Unfortunately, this often led them into deeper involvement with the correctional system rather than with social services.

Recently, however, adolescent abuse and neglect has become a significant concern of a number of runaway youth projects and other community-based youth agencies, according to a research project conducted by Urban and Rural Systems Associates (URSA), San Francisco. The URSA project was supported by the Youth Development Bureau, ACYF, to identify and develop community-based intervention strategies and treatment approaches for adolescent abuse and neglect.[8]

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[8] Bruce Fisher, Jane Berdie, JoAnn Cook and Jane Radford-Barker, "Adolescent Abuse and Neglect: Intervention Strategies and Treatment Approaches," San Francisco, Urban and Rural Systems Associates, 1979.

There are several reasons for this increasing concern. First, many runaway youth programs have become more involved in providing family counseling for their clients, and they are recognizing that such adolescent problems as running away and abuse and neglect are results of intrafamilial dysfunction. For example, the URSA study notes that families in which adolescents are abused and neglected are often multiproblem families. Many clinicians interviewed in the study spoke of the significance of individual psychological and emotional problems of key family members, especially those of the parents and the maltreated youth. Generally, they saw the presence of chronic individual dysfunction—such as immaturity, depression and poor self-esteem (on the part of parents or children)—as the most important variable in differentiating between chronic maltreatment and situational or adolescent-precipitated maltreatment.

Several clinicians and researchers also observed that the presence or absence of a social network appeared to play a role in a family's ability to understand and cope with its problems before abuse or neglect occurred. They noted that the development of a social network, long considered an important resource for parents, is equally important for the younger members of a family. A socially isolated youth, they pointed out, may be much more vulnerable to maltreatment because he spends more time at home and is likely to be home alone (without friends), may have no one from whom to seek advice or help in learning survival strategies and, because of his isolation, may become more enmeshed in pathological family dynamics.

In addition to the fact that youth workers have been identifying more cases of sexual abuse and of physical abuse and neglect recently among their clients, many youth workers interviewed during the URSA study indicated that up to 75 percent of runaway youth experience some aspect of emotional abuse or neglect in their homes.

The growing concern about adolescent maltreatment has given impetus to both the Federal and local governments to provide support for program development, professional training and public awareness efforts in the areas of child and adolescent abuse and neglect.

The role of runaway youth programs in treating adolescent victims of abuse and neglect has broadened in the past several years. Traditionally, the social service agencies have not been responsive to such victims. Protective service workers focus primarily on abuse cases involving infants or younger children and reports of adolescent abuse are often dismissed or referred to youth service programs. In addition, adolescents usually do not trust traditional social service systems. Because runaway youth programs are community-based and almost always staffed by younger adults their, their environment is more conducive to the development of trust between client and counselor.

Intervention and treatment efforts in the area of adolescent abuse and neglect involve a variety of services. At one time or another, almost every runaway youth program will be involved to some extent in providing the following services: identification; crisis intervention; case planning; diagnosis and treatment; support services; and case management.

URSA's final report presents four basic approaches to addressing adolescent abuse and neglect within the current structure and emphasis of existing youth service programs. Implementation of these approaches would vary according to project resources, program goals and community needs. The four models are:

The identification and Referral Model.—This model would require no change in existing services or program structure. It assumes that each worker has sufficent knowledge to identify adolescent abuse and neglect and can provide crisis counseling to the victim. Each counselor should be able to obtain, directly or indirectly, emergency medical attention and shelter when necessary. Each worker knows when to refer clients to appropriate agencies for services which the youth program cannot provide, and/or to obtain the assistance of a local child protective agency. The counselor serves as an advocate for the youth, at least for purposes of obtaining assistance from community resources.

The Coordinator Model. This model prescribes that at least one caseworker assume responsibility for working with abuse and neglect victims and their families. He or she would be responsible for crisis intervention counseling with the victim and, if possible, the victim's family, and for liaison work with protective services and/or juvenile court and/or other appropriate social service/mental health agencies.

The Component Model. This model represents a specific component within an alternative style, community-based program which would provide services primarily for adolescent victims of abuse or neglect. Services might be limited or

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broad-based and could include a crisis hotline, emergency shelter, crisis intervention counseling for victims and their families, or a long-term residential facility for adolescent abuse and neglect victims.

The Holistic Model.—This model is a multiservice youth program which provides a wide variety of services in an informal, non-threatening environment. The primary focus is on developing a trust relationship with clients by providing non-categorical services which meet the needs of adolescents. Services provided might include recreational programs, counseling, tutoring, advocacy and medical and family planning assistance. This type of program offers young people opportunities to "test" trust relationships with the counselor.

Treating adolescent abuse and neglect within a runaway youth program or other community-based alternative agency will provide abused teenagers with an opportunity to receive necessary counseling services while allowing social service systems to shift the burden of these troubled youths to services that the youths find easier to utilize. This type of programming is also designed to prevent an adolescent from becoming seriously involved with the juvenile justice system, an involvement which could be precipitated by the adolescent's acting out behavior as a result of abusive family situations. Such community-based programs can, in conjunction with traditional protective service agencies, provide treatment in an environment conducive to gaining an adolescent's trust.

The program models presented in URSA's report offer broad outlines which communities can use in developing programs to meet the pressing needs of adolescents who are abused or neglected.

Jane's Case: An Update

Since this article was written, Jane's caseworker with the Division of Family Services (DFS) was able to locate Jane's mother, who expressed interest in having Jane join her and her family. Subsequently, Jane and her mother, stepfather and their children met with the DFS worker at Youth in Need for counseling, with the DFS and Youth in Need workers serving as co-therapists. The case was taken to court, and Jane's mother was awarded legal custody.

APPENDIX R

SITE VISIT REPORT—YOUTH IN NEED ADOLESCENT MALTREATMENT PROJECT, ST. CHARLES, MISSOURI

(By Johannes Troost)

PROJECT OVERVIEW

Youth In Need, Inc. (YIN) is a private, non-profit, community-based organization specifically for adolescents and their families located in St. Charles, Missouri. It provides shelter services, counseling, a hotline, information and referral, technical assistance, outreach and networking/community organizations and development. It is the primary resource for adolescents for the Division of Family and Youth Services in St. Charles County.

The Adolescent Maltreatment project (AMP) at YIN is staffed by a Project Director and Family Specialist and has administrative and secretarial support. Primary services provided by the project are a 24-hour hotline, counseling, face-to-face crisis intervention, shelter, casework counseling, individual counseling or therapy, family counseling or therapy and adolescent groups. Besides these direct services, YIN also does community coordination, community organization and development, legislative activity, professional training and education and community education.

I. IMPLEMENTATION STATUS

Issues

The initial concern of NCAAN for the AMP at YIN was distinguishing between a subpopulation of maltreated adolescents and the population served by the agency. YIN staff felt that this problem has been artificially created through initial misunderstanding. YIN staff stated that for many adolescents seeking shelter services, referral and crisis intervention, abuse has been an issue for an extended period of time. The youth coming to the agency do not initially present abuse as their primary concern. In some cases, a client may request shelter services. Only after three to five days of services; building a rapport and trust with counselors do abuse issues surface as a dynamic of family dysfunction. When such cases arise, these youth are referred to the two AMP staff for further assessment and treatment.

Neither the agency director nor the AMP staff feel there is any problem now in differentiating between clients. In an implementation review the staff felt that the issues which arose surrounding the differentiation between clients were in fact, concerns about clarifying existing processes for the provision of services to maltreated adolescents. Staff sees that problem resolved. As a result of clarifying these concerns around process, YIN project staff feel clearer about explaining and differentiating client subpopulations and services between YIN staff and other agencies in the community. Specifically, results of this clarification were as follows:

YIN staff are familiar with the casework process for handling maltreated adolescents, the legal issues and process and the network of other agencies providing support services to abused adolescents.

Better coordination with other agencies in describing specific service needs for maltreated youth.

Better service planning to reduce service gaps.

The major problem facing the project currently is obtaining payments to YIN-identified foster homes for maltreated adolescents.

YIN is licensed by the Missouri Division of Family Services as a child placement agency. However, the Division of Family Services will only pay foster homes whose home-studies have been completed by their staff. YIN is required by the Division of Family Services to conduct a home study using the same format and criteria which workers from the Division of Family Services use. According to YIN staff, their child placement license and home reports are more

rigorously scrutinized during the annual licensing review process than are those homes which the Division of Family Services licenses itself. However, YIN is still forced to recruit adolescent foster homes which are willing to provide services for free. Because of the needs of abused youth and the fear of legal enmeshment, these homes are difficult to recruit.

The Executive Director of YIN has researched the regulations and discovered that they are administratively promulgated as opposed to legislatively mandated. A meeting had been scheduled during mid-September with the State Deputy Director, Division of Family Services, but the meeting then was cancelled by the State Deputy Director.

In an analysis during the site visit, it was it was found that no jobs or turf appeared to be threatened by the prospect of YIN foster homes receiving payment from the Division of Family Services. YIN has the support of the County Division of Family Services and field staff.

It appears as though the major impediments to change are the policy making system within the Division of Family Services and budgetary constraints in foster care which might push administrative decision makers in the Division of Family Services to restrict foster care monies to state-licensed homes. In addition, the Division of Family Services refuses to license homes for the exclusive use of the project. Due to a shortage of foster care homes in the area, an emergency placement for a maltreated adolescent could not be guaranteed. YIN staff would like to have two such homes on line by February of 1980.

Summary of project's implementation problems and implications for future projects

YIN feels that any questions around differentiating between maltreated youth and the general adolescent population seen by YIN have been resolved unless the project hears otherwise from NCCAN and/or BPA. YIN staff believe the problem could be eliminated in future projects if a better understanding of the process of the maltreatment project within the host agency were developed by NCCAN.

The YIN staff see the foster care payment problem as significant and serious. However, with the current difficulty in recruiting foster care for adolescents experienced both by the Division of Family Services and YIN, and the local support from the Division of Family Services for direct payment to YIN foster homes, the problem has a good chance of being worked through by January, 1980.

YIN staff felt that an NCCA/N initiative providing money for funding foster homes for abused adolescents either through projects or state agencies dealing with abused adolescents would help future projects.

Implementation of the AMP itself was not hampered by this problem. However, more adolescents could have been served if additional foster homes had been available.

General status of project implementation

YIN staff felt the AMP was implemented easily. They attributed this success to the high quality of staff and the overwhelming support of the Division of Family Services.

Since last March, there has been no turnover in the five staff members working with the AMP. They have continued providing eight core client services projected for the project. The current caseload is five; a full caseload for the project is 15 cases, four in shelter care and 11 in non-shelter care.

II. PROJECT SERVICES

Client services

Referrals.—The AMP at YIN receives cases through self referral of a youth to the project; referral from the courts, DFS, police, schools or local hospital; referral by YIN shelter staff to the AMP.

The primary source of referrals are the youth themselves. For many youth who run away from home, maltreatment has been a family dysfunction for three or more years. Often, shelter care staff identify maltreatment as a cause for youth to seek alternative living arrangements. When this occurs, the family specialist at YIN who spends 90% of his time on the AMP is notified to provide counseling and casework management for the client.

Referrals from community based agencies are made to the AMP through direct notification of the family specialist. These referrals come from, in order of volume from greatest number of referrals, the juvenile court, Division of Family Services, St. Charles Police Department, schools, and St. Joseph's Hospital. These agencies have very cooperative, productive relationships with the YIN/AMP.

Initially, police officers were confused as to their role and the procedures for taking protective custody. After meeting with the Executive Director of YIN and the project director, the police chief issued a departmental memorandum clarifying the role and procedures for police officers taking protective custody of an adolescent. The project has subsequently had no problems getting a youth taken into protective custody.

The relationships with the community agencies were developed through initial individual meetings with the agencies to explain the project and community forums around the issues of adolescent maltreatment

These relationships are maintained through continued forums; phone and face-to-face contact on case management issues; joint family meetings where YIN will request an agency's participation so that those workers with statutory responsibility for the cases (i.e. the courts, DFS) will have insight into further case planning; and administrative coordination between YIN and community agencies on policies and procedures affecting maltreated adolescents.

Client population

YIN staff noted that for most of the self-referral youth, the presenting issue has been neglect. Parents simply lock the doors or kick the youth out of the house. This abandonment is coupled with physical, emotional and sometimes sexual abuse. Youth report being punched in the face or beaten with a belt. These claims are usually supported and confirmed during investigation. Sexual involvement usually involves the father/step father with threats or emotional disengagement used to obtain compliance. However, AMP staff report that the presenting issue for the adolescent is running away. Staff at YIN saw this as a potentially empowering act, and in some cases, demonstration of the strength the adolescent has under adverse family conditions.

AMP staff report that the abusing adult has difficulty coping with the developmental issues of adolescence. Staff note families of maltreated adolescents usually recomposed families with financial and severe marital problems. The adolescent is caught in a triangulated relationship within the family structure with the parent demanding unrealistic support from the adolescent through parent/adolescent role reversal. Two important considerations coming from the reported family dynamics are an apparent high degree of alcohol and wife abuse.

It appears that the dysfunctional family dynamics have been developing for a number of years. Staff cited dysfunction for two years or more as not being uncommon for the families they have seen. Most of the individual adolescents are new cases to the abuse neglect system. However, AMP staff have found that DFS has had previous involvement with the same family through earlier reported abuse with other children/adolescents in the family.

Service needs.—AMP staff see the treatment/service needs of abused adolescents and their families as immediate shelter for the adolescent to stabilize/clarify the presenting problems; casework, individual, group, and family counseling for the youth; individual and family counseling for the maltreators, taking the focus off the abuse; and case management services for other presenting family problems.

Due to the reporting laws and subsequent investigatory processes, more agencies are involved in providing services than the runaway population typically seen by YIN.

For the following reasons often this process scares the adolescent. Staff report that youth fear being sent back home for the following reasons. The abusing adult will deny the problems; there will be repercussions for "telling"; and there is insufficient evidence to substantiate their statements; a lack of concrete evidence, other than the youth's statements.

YIN staff believed that self-referral, running away, and the immediacy of family crisis were the important factors working for the adolescent in overcoming the fears of intervention and treatment by the project.

Theoretical model and intervention approach.—AMP staff at YIN regard the causal factors related to maltreatment as centering around the inability of the family members to negotiate conflict arising from change in the family unit and lack of adequate training for community agency personnel who could identify and respond to potential abuse situations, specifically schools and police.

Since the project's inception, the model and approach used by YIN to address the preceding causal factors has been a family systems approach which utilizes a psychodynamic base. Staff identified the theoretical work of Virginia Satir, Salvadore Minuchin and Jay Haley as the basis for their approach. This approach looks at the family as a system of dynamic interactions, which each family member behaviorally contributing to both the health and dysfunction of

the family system. This approach is seen by YIN staff as particularly helpful in working with run away youth and maltreated adolescents in that it helps refocus the family members from the individual behavior of one member to how the family unit collaborates in continuing the the crisis; highlights enmeshment and triangularization within the family; helps bring out social and economic factors creating stress on the family; looks at the developmental phases of all family members; creates a climate for change; each individual within the family has responsibility for solving the problem facing the family; and helps prevent scapegoating of the victim.

YIN has been using this model as their treatment base before they applied for the AMP. AMP's staff point out that the model is not new in its application to abuse and neglect cases. For the majority of the cases the AMP's staff see, this model adequately meets the needs/problems of maltreated adolescents.

The only problem presented by the model is that of families who refuse to get involved in the treatment plan. In such cases, the project may do more individual psychotherapy with the client.

AMP staff noted that an individualized plan is developed for the needs of each youth referred, allowing for flexibility should a family decide not to participate in treatment.

The project does not see any change forthcoming in its approach. The commitment to the model reflects the values of the collective agency rather than the individual staff working in the project.

C. CORE SERVICES

The AMP at YIN provides the following care services as part of its treatment package: 24-hour hotline counseling; shelter; casework Counseling; individual therapy or counseling; couples Counseling or therapy; family counseling or therapy; and adolescent group.

By January, 1980, they hope to have fully implemented a foster care network for abused adolescents.

24-hour hot line

All staff at YIN spend 10 percent of their time staffing the hotline. There is a toll free number for St. Charles and St. Louis. The hot line provides a central reference for information and referral for youth and their families, as well as crisis counseling on a 24-hour a day basis. The advantage of this service to victims of maltreatment is the availability of services beyond the 9–5 working day of most social service agencies in the area.

At least one-third of the project's case load utilizes this service; many others use the service but not in the caseload of the agency. Most clients call more than once, but usually in the same night. The hot line is usually the first contact the client has had with the project.

Face-to-face crises intervention

Clients utilizing this service usually come into the project on a walk-in basis, emotionally upset, sometimes crying. The client is taken into a counseling room to discuss what the precipitating issues are. If appropriate, an abuse/neglect report is filed and the youth is given shelter if no alternatives are available.

The purpose of the service is to assess the emotional and/or physical condition of the youth, stabilize the youth through emotional and physical support, and discuss or clarify the options for services. The process usually builds rapport with the abused or neglected youth and/or adults.

One hundred percent of the AMP caseload receive this service, an average of 3 times over 2 weeks youth stay in shelter care. Primarily, this service is provided at intake, family meeting and placement. Ten percent of the project director's time and 20 percent of the family specialist's time is spent providing this service. Four resident counselors in shelter services spend 10 percent of their time providing this service. Occasionally, at the discretion of project staff, juvenile officers from the police department and DFS workers will come to the project during the crisis to help provide background information or seek preliminary investigation data.

Shelter

The purpose of this service is to provide a safe, secure place for youth aged 13 to 18 who are in crisis. It alleviates immediate stress without going through a bureaucratic agency. The shelter provides the operational basis for the provision of most casework and counseling services. There is a two week maximum stay; exceptions are made for youth awaiting placement.

The shelter is licensed by the DFS for up to six youths. eighty-five percent of the project's caseload receive this service for up to two weeks. Only a few have repeated this service. Four resident counselors spend 60 percent of their time providing this service to the project clients. DFS sees this as the only resource available for housing adolescents in the St. Charles area.

The major limitation of the service is the need for longer term care in the youth's own community. Few alternative care placements currently exist for adolescents in St. Charles.

Casework counseling

This service addresses the need for effective and efficient delivery of community services to maltreated adolescents. Working with juvenile officers and DFS staff, AMP staff usually file abuse reports, communicate with the parents of the maltreated youth to let them know the youth is in shelter care, and arrange for referrals and case conferences.

This service is particularly helpful in that different between agencies with statutory responsibility for abuse and neglect cases were letting youth slip into the quagmire of interagency policies and procedures.

One hundred percent of the project's caseload receive this service at least once a day for an average of four weeks. The project director spends 15 percent, and the specialists spend 25 percent, respectively, of their time providing this service.

AMP staff found that police and DFS workers are not willing to act as quickly on adolescent maltreatment as they are for child abuse. Gaining cooperation of the other agencies in the initial stages of the project was somewhat of a problem. Once AMP staff demonstrated their competence, the problem was eliminated.

Individual counseling and therapy

This service gives clients a chance to talk about and sort out their feelings. The service is provided to 100 percent of the project's caseload. When a youth is in residence, the service is provided four times a week. After placement, the service is provided once a week for an average of two months. All individual counseling is done on a regularly scheduled basis at the project. The family specialist spends 35 percent and the project director spends 20 percent of their time providing this service. Residence counselors spend 15 percent of their time providing this service to AMP clients.

Couples counseling and therapy

The objective of this service is to improve the family system and decrease victimization of the maltreated adolescent. During the therapy, problems are identified in the relationship, a description of how the problems are currently handled is developed, and alternative ways to deal with the problems are discussed. This process refocuses the problem back on the family as a unit. The service is designed for adult maltreator; 20 percent of the project's caseload receive this service once every two weeks on a scheduled basis.

This service usually commences in the second week of contact with the family of the maltreated adolescent. The service is provided at the project, with the family specialist and project director each spending 5 percent of their time providing this service. The major limitation of this service is parental resistance to accept the service.

Family therapy

This service helps the family define what they see the problem to be, and work toward resolving the concerns. AMP staff encourage the whole family to assend these sessions, with AMP staff working as co-therapist, depending on the severity of the family problem.

Eighty five percent of the projects caseload receive this service, scheduled once or twice a week at the project. The service usually continues for an average client for approximatly two months. Occasionally, staff will meet at the clients' home. The family specialist spends 55 percent of her time; and the project director spends 20 percent of her time providing this service. This is a difficult service to implement as it depends on the parents' willingness to participate in the service.

Adolescent group

This service is provided to all youth in residence, and enables youth to get in touch with their feelings through support from peers who may be facing similar

problems. This self-help group also works problems out between clients in the residence.

The service is provided through house meetings, held at the residence in the evenings on an as-needed basis. Over a period of two weeks five to ten such meetings are usually calld. The service is only available while maltreated adolescents are in residence. Resident counselors spend 15–20 percent of their time running these groups.

This service has proven effective in that it provides feedback to youth from their peers on their problem solving approaches. It also is an opportunity for youth to experience positive, non-destructive confrontation. AMPP staff feels it is unfortunately limited in that only youth in the residence can receive the service.

Services to foster families.—The AMP staff at YIN plan to implement this service by March, 1980. They would like to see three different foster care placements developed for the following types of treatment approaches: short-term: emergency, awaiting placement; short-term: three to six months, until a youth can return home; and long-term: more than six months, with emphasis on independent living.

It is not anticipated that these services will be provided at YIN.

AMP staff are currently looking at training designs which train both foster families and the parents whose youth are in care.

Referral services/community linkages.—The AMP at YIN refers cases to family planning, private physicians and psychiatrists and the Division of Family Services. Family planning provides information on birth control and general sex education. Physicians and psychiatrists are used for health and mental health needs as they appear in the course of treatment. DSF provides money for foster placements approved by them. Of these services, the project only ensures that clients receive services from family planning. Client service gaps identified by YIN staff are the need for a group home for longer term referral; residential mental health services for youths in need of intensive treatment; a foster home network specifically for adolescents.

The Community Council of St. Charles is forum for discussion of service ga[illegible] and duplication of services. According to the Executive Director of YIN, the Council, sees no duplication in the efforts of the AMP with other community abuse/neglect agencies.

AMP staff experienced initial resistance to the projects efforts to develop linkages. Adolescents, as a class of clients needing help, were perceived as juvenile delinquents who needed to be handled by the police and taught a lesson. The project has been working on changing this image of malterated adolescents. Since its inception, the AMP has had an increase in referrals, better cooperation on individual casework, and seen more effective provision of mandated services.

Non-client services.—The AMP at YIN is involved in five direct services. They are as follows: Community coordination; Community organization and development; Legislative activity; Professional training and education; and Community education.

Community coordination.—YIN feels this service is the most essential component of the project. The project is in the position of coordinatin case plans for the AMP with other abuser/neglect agencies.

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D. Non-client services

The adolescent maltreatment project at YIN is involved in five indirect services. They are: Community coordination; community organization and development; legislative activity; professional training and education; and community education.

Community coordination

YIN feels this service is the most essential component of the project. The project is in the position of coordinating plants case plans for DFS an the juvenile officer to meet client needs around abuse/neglect, due to boundary issues between the two agencies.

AMP staff ensure that each agency providing services to project clients, coordinates information with each other. This can be anywhere from two to six

agencies/individuals involved in one case: (1) the reporting agency; (2) DFS; (3) YIN; (4) Juvenile office; (5) police; (6) Phychologist or other professional assigned to the case.

The long-term efforts of this project are aimed at the development of a tight referral network with increased awareness of community resources for maltreated adolescents. To reach this goal, AMP staff are continuing to file abuse/neglect reports; following up on investigation results; exchanging information on abuse/neglect; and monitoring the existing system to minimize duplication.

Strong linkages have been developed with the juvenile courts, DFS, schools and police as a result of these activities. The family specialist spends 25% of her time each week coordinating services around clients.

The Director of Counseling services spends 15% of his time in weekly meetings or telephone discussions maintaining relationships with supervisory personnel in the other abuse/neglect agencies in the community.

Community organization and development

This service exists to improve the service system for abuse/neglect services through assessment of service needs and community planning. Since there are few agencies providing services to maltreated adolescents, YIN is in key leadership roles in this effort.

Since January, 1979, the service has been documenting changes and improvements in the service network. A core group of professionals from varying community agencies concerned with adolescent maltreatment has been meeting. They have assessed training needs in the abuse/neglect system; identified trainers; and helped to clarify the roles of the agencies in the YIN System.

The Executive Director of YIN and the Counseling Coordinator each spend 10% of their time each week meeting informally with professionals from all components of the abuse/neglect system. These include professionals in the fields of education, health, mental health and juvenile justice.

Legislative activity

The Executive Director of YIN spends 5% of her time each week monitoring legislation on abuse and neglect to rectify statutory problems facing the provision of services to maltreated adolescents.

The Missouri statutory law for abused/neglected youth covers juveniles until their 15th birthday: the Juvenile court covers youth only until their 17th birthday.

Requested that the administration submit a revised law on which court coverage for abuse/neglect be brought to the legislature.

Brought this issue to the attention of an advocacy network (the Missouri Childcare Association) and received their support.

YIN staff feels it will take another two and one half years to affect these changes with legislators.

Professional training and education

This service provides information, resources and training around specific topic areas of adolescent abuse. Adolescent abuse is given low priority by professionals in the community. The good of this service is to develop a multidisciplinary training team which can produce and make available training material for various professional populations in the St. Charles area who need to know their responsibilities around abuse and neglect.

To date, training around adolescent maltreatment has been conducted for DFS supervisors, juvenile officers with the St. Charles police department, and counselors and principals from some of the local schools.

Besides participation of the family specialist and Project Director of the AMP, and the Executive Director of YIN, a supervisor, from DFS, a juvenile officer from the police and an emergency room supervisor from the hospital have also participated in the training.

The training, through a community forum, has focused on awareness of the problems of maltreated adolescents; identification of symptoms which might indicate maltreatment; reporting requirements and procedures specific to each professional and agency orientation.

AMP staff state that video tape and slide projectors are essential for training; they enable local production of relevant training materials.

Community education

The goals of this service are to increase the number of appropriate reports of adolescent abusers made to the hotline, and to train other professional trainers

in the community to include adolescent maltreatment as part of their training. To reach these goals, YIN hopes to increase recognition that adolescents can be abused; familiarize citizens with reporting procedures; and increase citizen knowledge in identifying signs of abuse/neglect in adolescents.

AMP staff and the Executive Director have had occasional speaking engagements with citizen groups. No formal comprehensive community education plan around adolescent maltreatment has been developed yet. AMP staff will have this plan developed by January, 1980.

The non-client services provided by the AMP at YIN build on one another. The services are change oriented focusing on roles or functions within agencies and the dynamics between agencies in the abuse/neglect service system.

B. RELATIONSHIP AMONG SERVICES

Client and non-client services for maltreated adolescents are integrated reasonably well both within the AMP and YIN agencies. Excellent networking and casework has put YIN in the unique position as the primary resource for its direct services to maltreated adolescents in staff leadership roles, coordinating, developing and arbitrating in multidisciplinary teams in the community around resource assessment, planning and training and further, has put them in a position to be most knowledgeable about the abuse/neglect system in their area.

It is interesting to note that casework counseling in the client services domain and community coordination in the non-client services are the biggest pieces of the pie graph. Both services are predicated on building formal and informal relationships with other agencies in the abuse/neglect system.

Good project management and communication between staff on the maltreatment project and between AMP staff and other YIN projects are seen as major factors contributing to the overall integration of the services provided by YIN. The staff feels the apparent ease of project implementation is related to these variables.

APPENDIX S

THE COSTS OF THE PATTERN OF APPROPRIATE PLACEMENTS AND ALTERNATIVES TO FOSTER CARE

TABLE 24.—ESTIMATED PER CHILD PER DIEM AND PER CHILD PER YEAR COSTS OF FOSTER CARE PLACEMENTS AND ALTERNATIVE SERVICES

Types of placements	Maintenance			Medicaid total [1]	Combined per diem total	Combined per year total
	Total	Public	Voluntary			
Temporary foster care:						
Foster home	$12.98	$12.27	$0.71	$1.16	$14.14	$5,200
Group home	38.53	36.49	2.04	3.60	42.13	15,400
Group residence	41.83	40.36	1.47	9.20	51.03	18,600
General institution [2]	88.85	87.94	.91	4.24	93.09	34,000
Secure detention	115.31	115.31	.....	(3)	115.31	42,100
Long-term foster care:						
Foster home	12.98	12.27	.71	1.16	14.14	5,200
Agency-operated boarding home	28.09	24.83	3.26	1.16	29.25	10,700
Group home	38.53	36.49	2.04	3.60	42.13	15,400
Group residence	40.12	36.00	4.12	5.02	45.14	16,500
General institution	40.85	36.90	3.95	5.48	46.33	16,900
Residential treatment type A	41.61	36.90	4.71	7.69	49.30	18,000
Residential treatment type B	43.42	36.90	6.52	11.89	55.31	20,200
Institution for the retarded	40.47	36.90	3.57	4.30	44.77	16,300
Foster home, prospective adoptive	12.98	12.27	.71	1.16	14.14	5,200
At home, suspended payment	.....	.....	(4)	.....	.....	.....
Adoption	14.15	8.94	5.21	(5)	14.15	5,200
Other systems:						
Lifetime care [6]	.....	.....	.....	78.00	78.00	28,500
Other [7]	.....	30.98	.....	39.43	70.41	25,700
Alternative services: [8]						
Comprehensive family center						900
Casework agency						1,000
Child guidance						2,000
Homemaker						2,000
Family day care						2,000
Day care center						4,000
Day treatment						8,000
Alternate or special education						.....
After school recreation						.....
Drug/alcohol rehabilitation						2,800
Housing assistance						1,000

[1] For the purpose of these estimates, it is assumed that medical expenses are 100-percent public.

[2] The reader will quickly spot the dramatic difference in cost of temporary general institutions (shelters) and other forms of care except secure detention). This is due to the fact that a large proportion of such care is at public facilities which have per child per diem costs of $150 to $170 for maintenance as opposed to an average of approximately $140 per child per diem in shelters operated by voluntary agencies. It should be noted that the public shelters are operating at well below capacity, hence a higher per child per diem expenditure, but the costs are still significantly higher even if this factor is controlled. According to Mr. Jeffrey Feuer, administrative director, bureau of institutions and facilities, special services for children, these costs do not include utilities—and large and growing expenditure and only a small part of administrative overhead; charges for utilities are funneled through the New York City Bureau of Plant Management. Special services for children was unable to provide data on medicaid expenditures for children in public care; this appears to be due to the fact that this service has been provided by hospitals near the shelters (i.e., Flower and 5th Ave., Peninsula General, Green point) which billed medicaid directly. As will become clear when we discuss medicaid costs at Spofford, a large amount of money is undoubtedly being expended for the medical care of children in the public shelters.

[3] Medicaid expenditures for secure detention (Spofford) are not available for 1974. According to Mr. Feuer, SSC has recently entered into a contract with Montefiore Hospital for fiscal 1974–75 to provide medical care for children on remand. For $700,000 the hospital will provide basic medical care. Assuming the census at Spofford remains at the 1973–74 level (about 65,000 days of care provided), this is equal to over $10 per child per diem and does not include psychiatric services.

[4] No attempt has been made to estimate aftercare costs.

[5] The method for calculating the per child per diem adoption costs is described separately.

[6] For purposes of these estimates it is assumed that lifetime care will be provided in facilities such as the psychiatric hospitals of the department of mental hygiene. According to Mr. Phil Murphy of DMH the statewide per child per diem cost of Children's Psychiatric Hospital facilities is $78. This is shown in the medicaid column.

[7] For purposes of these estimates it is assumed that children in "other" foster care programs would be evenly divided between DFY training schools and DMH children's psychiatric hospitals. The respective per child per diem costs were $62.81 and $78 for 1974. The DFY does not distinguish between maintenance and medicaid in their cost analyses; for purposes of this study expenses for care in their facilities is designated as a maintenance cost. The State and local governments split these costs on a 50–50 basis. Cost data on DFY facilities were obtained from Mr. Vincent Cosell of the division for youth.

[8] These services are so highly fragmented that we have neither attempted to distinguish between public and voluntary expenditure nor between medicaid and nonmedicaid expenses. Per child per diem expenditures are not shown since the number of days per year the service would be provided is not standard.

Source: Blanche Bernstein, Donald A. Snider, William Meezan, Foster Care Needs and Alternative Placement, A Projection for 1975–85. Center for New York City Affairs, New School for Social Research, New York State Board of Social Welfare, 1975, pp. 44–45.

Appendix T

Recommendations of Other Programs Funded Under Runaway Youth Act*

Voyage House, Inc., Philadelphia, Pa.

Recommendations

Voyage House points to the need for survival skills training for runaway youth and other adolescents. In this regard it proposes to develop a Special Services Project directed at the needs of youth in Philadelphia which are not currently being met through conventional programs of basic educational, residential, social service and counseling services. Voyage indicates that these needs are apparent in the lack of basic skills and knowledge associated with runaways and other adolescents trying to cope in what they perceive to be hostile and insensitive environments.

In order for these youth to live self-sustaining and meaningful lives, Voyage hopes through this proposed program to prepare these youth with basic skills to meet their own needs, such as providing food, shelter, and clothing for themselves and their families, identifying and effectively using community resources to their advantage, holding a job, etc. According to Voyage House the need for such a program is more than supported by statistical facts which indicate that Philadelphia as a metropolitan area shows high degree of basic social disorganization, such as high rates of youth living in poverty, children not living with parents, school drop-outs, etc.

Aside from the alternative school which Voyage House operates, it was expressed that a pressing need for more alternative schools still remains—both those which place emphasis on enhancing one's academic skills and those which focus on trades, vocations, and job training skills. In addition, more group homes which will prepare youth for independent living was given high priority.

Staff also indicated that there was a tremendous gap regarding services to "gay" runaways. While these youth did not constitute a representative sample of the service population, it was, nonetheless, felt that some attention must focus on better service delivery approaches in dealing with these youth.

Staffers also felt that more attention was needed to be given to the severely emotionally disturbed runaway youth, rather than immediate placement of these individuals (by the State) into mental institutions. A halfway house of sorts was seen as a viable alternative to the unnecessary exposure and trauma of placing these youth into such institutions. It was further suggested that a mental health center specifically for teenagers was needed as other mental health centers were simply not in touch with the problems of teens.

Finally, it was stated that youth need to be thoroughly informed of what resources are available to them, e.g., alternative long-term therapy, runaway support groups, etc.

Fellowship of Lights, Baltimore, Maryland

Recommendations

In addition to services already offered through the program, the need for a 30-day temporary shelter was cited. It was suggested that such an arrangement would serve to ensure a more stable relationship between the youth and his/her counselor and would provide a better opportunity for the client to sustain any benefits which might accrue from his/her stay at the facility. Thus, he/she would be better prepared to deal with the more permanent living arrangements ahead. While the 30-day shelter was not seen as a panacea, it was simply felt that the current short-term stay of 10 days did not afford the best opportunity for staff to work effectively with the youth in order to establish a rapport, reinforce positive attitudes, etc.

*Source: Boone, Young and Associates. Identification of the Special Needs of Runaway Youth Due Primarily to Cultural or Demographic Factors, HEW Contract #105–77–2005, Youth Development Bureau, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1978.

Among other services which the respondents recommended for consideration and possible implementation were: more family support systems; e.g., education on drug abuse and sexuality; more community outreach in schools; more contact/coordination with the local police department; and more interaction with other community groups to combat the problems of runaways; and development of a more expansive referral system to involve the maximum in legal agencies, medical institutions, employment service agencies, etc.

The Miami Bridge, Miami, Florida

Recommendations

Referral and aftercare were viewed as very critical elements of the program. In this regard, Bridge is seeking to expand service delivery in each of these areas. Currently plans are being developed for Switchboard to handle the aftercare for Bridge clients. It is anticipated that the client and/or family will sign a release of information, with a corresponding letter being sent to Switchboard concerning the needs of the individuals. Bridge, in conjunction with Switchboard, will jointly work in the training of counselors as to techniques in crisis intervention, individual and group counseling, and various counseling modalities and techniques. Through the use of this approach, it is anticipated that there will be continuity in the delivery of aftercare services, since both organizations have worked together in staff training and in consultation of clients.

Active participation by youth in all aspects of the program is seen as another possibility for development or implementation. The Bridge proposes to use its service population as co-facilitators in such areas as peer counseling, adult counseling, etc. A youth participatory board was even suggested. Because, in these instances, youth actually observe their peers in positions of authority, they come to the realization that this is an attaintable goal. Thus, it is felt that positive image-building can take place along with other social benefits.

Center for Youth Alternatives, YMCA Shelter House, Louisville, Kentucky

Recommendations

Services which the respondents recommended for development and implementation include the following: Service resource center and independent living shelter house.

The service resource center would provide more effective outreach services and support services to clients, sibling and parents in a neutral setting. Among the support services would be skills and educational training, individual and family counseling and organized recreational activities. The establishment of a third Shelter House would serve those youth who are ready to be on their own. The eligible youth would operate the house and pay rent. Both of the above projects are being actively developed.

The Lighthouse, Cincinnati, Ohio

Recommendations

Currently, The Lighthouse has a number of pending projects which it will attent to implement in the near future. In addition to the fund raising drive, these include the following: Community education/relations; staff development; improvement of volunteer program; and development of foster care network.

The latter is considered to be critical because of the current shortage of foster homes. Placements in foster homes were considered to be more viable alternatives than institutional placements. If The Lighthouse had the legal authority to license foster homes, its staff would like to license homes on a short-term basis so that clients could be placed until they could be reunited with their families or until an appropriate type of permanent placement could be found. Such a network of short-term foster homes would avoid inappropriate institutional placements.

Other areas where services needed to be developed were parent education; long-term non-secure facilities; short-term non-secure facilities; and improvement of service linkages.

On the basis of staff experience with parents of runaways, an evident need has been identified for parent education in areas of conflict and crisis prevention. To implement such a program would require hiring additional staff. Since Hamilton County lacks adequate facilities for responding to the need for longer-term placements, there is evident need for development of long-term non-secure placement settings with appropriate services. The requirement that status of-

fenders not be placed in secure facilities while waiting adjudication will create a need for the development of non-secure, holding treatment facilities. The "division of labor" among services providers has created problems in effectively meeting the needs of runaway youth, particularly in terms of placement. From The Lighthouse perspective, it is critical that better linkages be developed among various services providers, particularly in light of the deinstitutionalization of status offenders.

United Indians, Inc., Minneapolis, Minnesota

Recommendations

Specific projects that the United Indians would like to develop and implement include the following:

Group home for Indian children between ages 5 and 12 to prevent their loss to the White community

Residential program for Indian families which would provide comprehensive services

Halfway house for Indian youth released from institutions

Alternative educational learning programs/settings for Indian youth with school problems

Employment program for hiring Indians in correctional social service program

Community education/information program to motivate Indians to seek services from community programs

Tracking program to identify and follow-up or Indian youth who have been placed in foster homes.

In addition, the project would like to initiate an effort directed at preventing the termination of parental rights by the court/welfare system. More generally, there is a pressing need for more Indian group homes because of the high concentration of Indians in Minnesota and of the comparatively high percentage of Indian youth-in-crisis.

The critical problems as perceived by United Indians relate to the interventionist practices of the court and welfare system with respect to the Indian community. The project's resistance to these practices bring it into direct conflict with these agencies. This stance makes it vulnerable to criticism and careful scrutiny. This situation is reinforced by the fact that the project operates under "fish bowl" conditions. An additional problem posed by the Welfare Department is that it uses Title XX funds to cover the costs of its referrals. These funds carry special conditions which limit eligibility to youth from poor families or court/welfare ordered referrals. Moreover, the County for the most part restricts the use of funds to the provision of shelter and food.

Youth Development, Inc., Amistad, Albuquerque, New Mexico

Recommendations

One of the most critical problems facing youth service providers is the limited availability of placement facilities; particularly group homes and residential treatment facilities. The need for the latter type of facility is not heavily restricted to the county or even the state; it is a need which is common to the southwest. Vision Quest, a private non-profit corporation, has developed a program of services which responds to this need. It currently operates in Arizona and Colorado; and the state of New Mexico has recently concluded a year's contract with it.

According to the respondents, what is needed to meet the placement crisis is a mid-term group facility. Because Amistad is currently providing mid-term services, as well as crisis services, its staff would like to develop a mid-term group facility. It would like to set up separate living cottages in different settings (urban and mountain) and provide a supportive environment for its clients. The services provided would include group and individual therapy; Self-concept building; Educational; and Employment referral.

A major barrier in setting up such a program is that the state will not fund organizations for this purpose which do not have established capability in operating such programs. Hogares, Inc., a local private, non-profit youth agency, has, however, been able to obtain funding to set up a mid-term facility.

Another critical area which requires the development of appropriate services is parent education. Parent education services would be directed at improving parenting and coping skills as well as providing resource information. In times

of crisis, it would be directed at involving the family in working out the problems and conflicts which produced the crisis. A third critical area is that of finding "qualified" Spanish-speaking staff. It is not difficult to find either qualified staff or Spanish-speaking staff. What is difficult is to find persons who both speak Spanish and have the appropriate training and experience. Spanish is required primarily for interaction with parents and relatives, but not for communicating with the youth.

Young Life Campaign, Dale House Project, Colorado Springs, Colorado

Recommendations

Dale House's major concern is to strengthen its longer term program of independent living and residential services. This would involve establishing an apartment arrangement where youth would live independently with support services, and where Dale House would be landlord; residential client groups; parent education/counseling groups; and employment referral service.

In addition to improving its longer term program, the project would like to focus specifically on the parental involvement problem. This problem is particularly difficult after DSS has assumed custody of a youth. The project also perceives the necessity of developing services for unwed mothers and "street youth," as well as developing a non-detention, treatment facility for chronic runaways. Such a facility is required in order to be able to work with those youth who continually run from their placements. The chronic runaway has become a serious problem; 80% of all runs are from placements.

Interface Community, Inc., Newbury Park, California

Recommendations

Two of the most pressing services needs are for "gray area" youth and for youth who cannot return home and need an independent living arrangement. For the former, what is required is an intermediate stay facility which provides an appropriate set of supportive services. Interface is in the process of developing such a facility under an Office of Criminal Justice Planning. The objectives would be to provide residential services while working with the youth and his family to achieve a transition back home or if this is not a viable alternative, to locate an alternative placement and/or prepare for independent living. For the latter youth, what is required is a setting where youth who cannot return home, but are willing and able to take on the responsibility for his/her own life, can be prepared for independent living and connected with other appropriate services. Eligible youth would have to be assessed for "need" and "maturity." Services would include support services, independent skills training, service networking and stable housing arrangements (e.g., rental room in home).

Another urgent service need is for the adolescent parent, the 16-18-year-old female mother. Only 60% of those females who choose to have their babies put them up for adoption. The county provides no services for such youth, and only two schools provide services for pregnant mothers.

APPENDIX U

FEDERAL LEGISLATION[1]

FEDERAL PROGRAMS AFFECTING CHILDREN WITHOUT HOMES

Program	Authorizing Legislation (Regulations)	Administering Agency (Program Office)[1]	Purpose	Type of Aid	Children Eligible for Program	Authorizing Congressional Committees (Subcommittees)
Aid to Families with Dependent Children.	Social Security Act, Title IV-A, 42 U.S.C. § 601, et seq. (45 CFR 201, et seq.).	HEW/SSA (Office of Family Assistance).	To provide federal funds to states for cash assistance payments to needy children and their families.	Formula grants; states make money payments directly to eligible needy families with dependent children. (Entitlement program)	In 24 states payments are limited to needy families with dependent children where one parent is deceased or absent from the home. The remaining states and the District of Columbia also extend benefits to needy families with unemployed fathers.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).
AFDC Foster Care.....	Social Security Act, § 408, 42 U.S.C. § 608 (45 CFR § 233.110).	HEW/SSA (Office of Family Assistance).	To provide reimbursement to states for maintenance costs for children in licensed or approved foster family homes and private non-profit child care institutions.	Formula grants; $100 average maximum monthly payment or Federal Medicaid percentage. (Entitlement program)	AFDC eligible children removed from their homes as a result of a judicial determination that continuation in such setting would be contrary to their welfare.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).
Child Welfare Services.	Social Security Act, Title IV-B, 42 U.S.C. §§ 620-625 (45 CFR 220).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, Children's Bureau).	To help state and local agencies provide preventive and protective services for children, including foster care.	Formula grants; each state receives $70,000 with the remainder allocated on the basis of population under 21 and per capita income.	All children in need of child welfare services without regard to financial need, legal residence, social status or religion.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).
Emergency Assistance..	Social Security Act, Title IV-A, 42 U.S.C. § 601, et seq. (45 CFR § 233.120).	HEW/SSA (Office of Family Assistance).	To assist needy families in emergency or crisis situations to avoid destitution or provide living arrangements if the family is without available resources for reasons other than refusal to accept employment.	Federal reimbursement to states having approved plan. Payments (cash, in-kind aid or vouchers) limited to 30 days per family in a 12-month period. (Entitlement program)	Families with children who are in emergency or crisis suations. Specific emergencies covered vary by state.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public assistance).
Indian Child Welfare Assistance.	25 U.S.C. § 13 (25 CFR 20).	DOI/BIA (Office of Indian Services).	To provide maintenance payments for foster home care and appropriate institutional or other group care for dependent, neglected and handicapped Indian children in need of such care, and for whom such	Direct payments for maintenance costs and services.	Indian children under 18, or under 22 if assistance initiated before 18, who reside on or near a reservation, who require placement in a foster home or specialized non-medical care facility in accordance	(H) Interior and Insular Affairs (Indian Affairs and Public Lands). (S) Select Committee on Indian Affairs.

			services are not available from other state or local welfare agencies, as well as services to children in care.		with the State AFDC Foster Care payments standards or have need of special service not available under other assistance or child welfare programs.	
Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention and Treatment.	Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act, 42 U.S.C. § 5101, et. seq. (45 CFR 1340).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Children, Youth and Families, Children's Bureau. National Centrr on Child Abuse and Neglect).	To assist states and other bodies to strengthen their capacity to develop programs which will help in identification and prevention of abuse and neglect, and provision of ameliorative services.	Formula grants to states which meet certain requirements and grants and contracts for research, training and demonstration projects.	Eligibility varies by project. Child abuse and neglect defined as harm or threatened harm to the health or welfare of a child under 18 by a person responsible for the child's health and welfare.	(H) Education and Labor Select Education). (S) Human Resources (Child and Human Development).
Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.	Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, 42 U.S.C. § 5601, et seq. (See State Planning Agency Grants Guideline Manual, and 43 Federal Register 36402-36410, August 16, 1978.)	DOJ/LEAA (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention).	To assist states in planning, establishing, operating, coordinating or evaluating juvenile justice projects. To provide funds for special projects for the improvement of and development of alternatives to the juvenile justice system.	Formula grants; states meeting certain requirements receive $200,000 plus an additional amounts allocated on the basis of population under 18. Discretionary facilities and to ensure that grants for special emphasis projects.	Not applicable. To receive funds a state must include a number of provisions in its state plan, including provisions to remove status offenders from correctional facilities and to ensure that juveniles will not be detained in facilities, where they have regular contact with adults. Special emphasis grants may be made to public and private agencies, organizations, institutions, or individuals. At least 20% of funds must go to private, nonprofit agencies, organizations or institutions with experience in dealing with youth.	(H) Education and Labor (Economic Opportunity). (S) Judiciary (Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency).
Runaway Youth Program.	Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, Title III, Runaway Youth Act, 42 U.S.C. § 5701, et seq. (45 CFR 1351).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Children, Youth and Families, Youth Development Bureau).	To assist public or non-profit private agencies develop local facilities to deal primarily with the needs of homeless youth in a manner which is outside the law enforcement structure and juvenile justice system. Also authorizes technical assistance and short-term training to staff of runaway facilities.	Project grants and contracts..	Programs serve youths under 18 who absent themselves from their home or legal residence without permission of their parents or legal guardian.	(H) Education and Labor, Labor (Economic Opportunity). (S) Judiciary (Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency).

FEDERAL PROGRAMS AFFECTING CHILDREN WITHOUT HOMES—Continued

Program	Authorizing Legislation (Regulations)	Administering Agency (Program Office)[1]	Purpose	Type of Aid	Children Eligible for Program	Authorizing Congressional Committees (Subcommittees)
Social Services.....	Social Security Act, Title XX, 42 U.S.C. /1397, et seq. (45 CFR 228).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Public Services).	To furnish services directed at the goals of achieving or maintaining self-support and/or self sufficiency, preventing or remedying neglect, abuse, or exploitation of children and adults unable to protect themselves; preserving, rehabilitating, or reuniting families; preventing or reducing inappropriate institutional care when appropriate and providing services to persons in institutions.	Formula grants; 90% federal match for family planning services, 75% for all other services. Fees may be required (Capped entitlement program.)	Determined by state but may include any children in families with a monthly gross income under 115% of the median income for a family of 4, adjusted for family size. 50% of state's funds must go to AFDC, SSI or Medicaid eligible persons. Includes services to children in foster care as well as emergency shelter for children in need of protective services.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance)
Indian Social Services Counseling Program.	25 U.S.C. §13(25 CFR 20).	DOI/BIA (Office of Indian Services).	To provide counseling services to recipients of general assistance' to children in the Indian Child Welfare Assistance Program,and to other Indian children and adults in need of social services.	Provisions of services by BIA staff.	Indian children who reside on or near a reservation who request or on whose behalf family and community services are requested.	(H) Interior and Insular Affairs (Indian Affairs and Public Lands. (S) Select Committee on Indian Affairs.
Medicaid.....	Social Security Act Title XIX, 42 U.S.C. §1396, et seq. (42 CFR 446-452).	HEW/Health Care Financing Administration (Medicaid Bureau).	To provide financial assistance for medical services to individuals and families certified as eligible by the states.	Formula grants; state expenditures are matched by federal Medicaid percentage. (Entitlement program.)	Child must be certified eligible by the state welfare or Medicaid agency. All states but Arizona have Medicaid programs. Eligibility varies by state, but in all states children are eligible if they receive AFDC or SSI payments or are under 21 and would be eligible for AFDC except for federal or state age or school attendance requirements. States have the option of extending coverage to the medically needy, to children under 21 who are financially needy but do not qualify for	(H) Interstate and Foreign Commerce (Health and the Environment). (S) Finance (Health).

					AFDC, and to SSI-eligible children. Financially eligible children under 21 in foster care and certain types of child care institutions are also often eligible, as are children adopted with subsidies in some states.	
Early Periodic Screening, Diagnosis and Treatment (EPSDT) Program.	Social Security Act, Title XIX, 42 U.S.C. § 1396, et. seq. (45 CFR § 205.146; 42 CFR § 449.10).	HEW/Health Care Financing Administration (Medcaid Bureau).	To provide preventive health care to Medicaid eligible children by identifying, diagnosing and treating medical, dental and developmental problems.	Formula grants; state expenditures are matched by the federal Medicaid percentage. (Entitlement program.)	Children under 21 who are Medicaid-eligible, including children in out-of-home care.	(H) Interstate and Foreign Commerce (Health and the Environment). (S) Finance (Health).
Supplemental Security Income (SSI).	Social Security Act, Title XVI, 42 U.S.C. § 1381, et seq. (20 CFR 416).	HEW/SSA (Office of Program Operations, Bureau of Supplemental Security Income).	To provide supplemental income, through federal financial assistance, to persons in financial need who are age 65 or older and to persons who are blind or disabled, including children.	Direct payments with unrestricted use. In some states federal benefit is supplemented by state payment. (Entitlement program).	Children who meet the federal eligibility criteria for blindness or disability and have access to less than the specified levels of income and resources. Children in foster care and certain types of institutions may be eligible. Coverage also extends to children in group facilities serving 16 or fewer persons.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).
SSI Disabled Children's Program.	Social Security Act, Title XVI, 42 U.S.C. §1382d (42 CFR §§ 51a.301-321, (Interim Rule, December 16, 1977).	HEW/Public Health Service (Health Services Administration Bureau of Community Health Services Office for Maternal and Child Health).	To ensure that children who receive SSI are referred to the state's crippled children's agency or other appropriate agency to determine their need for medical, education and social services. Children six or under or children who have never attended school must be provided services and children over six referred for services which will help them benefit from subsequent education or training or otherwise enhance their opportunities for self-sufficiency or self-support as adults.	Formula grants to the states..	All children who receive SSI..	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).

FEDERAL LEGISLATION [1]—Continued

FEDERAL PROGRAMS AFFECTING CHILDREN WITHOUT HOMES—Continued

Program	Authorizing Legislation (Regulations)	Administering Agency (Program Office)[1]	Purpose	Type of Aid	Children Eligible for Program	Authorizing Congressional Committees (Subcommittees)
Civilian Health and Medical Program of the Uniformed Services (CHAMPUS).	10 U.S.C. § 1071, et seq. (32 CFR 199).	DOD/Asst. Sec. of Defense-Health Affairs (Office for the Civilian Health and Medical Program of the Uniformed Services).	To provide financial assistance for medical care by civilian sources to dependents of active, retired and deceased members of the uniformed services; in addition to basic medical care, assistance is available for certain services for handicapped dependents.	DOD reimburses CHAMPUS contractors at a fixed rate set forth in contracts.	Children of active duty members of the uniformed services or of retired or deceased members who are under 21, or students and under 23, or older and dependent for support because of a physical or mental incapacity; only children of active duty members or certain deceased members are eligible for the handicapped programs.	(H) Armed Services (Military Personnel). (S) Armed Services (Manpower and Personnel).
Crippled Children's Services.	Social Security Act, Title V, 42 U.S.C. §701, et seq. (42 CFR 51a).	HEW/Public Health Service (Health Services Administration, Bureau of Community Health Services, Office for Maternal and Child Health).	To assist states, especially in rural areas and areas suffering from economic distress, in locating children with crippling conditions or suffering from conditions leading to crippling and providing a full range of diagnostic and corrective services, including hospitalization and other institutional care and aftercare.	Federal/state matched formula grants and special project grants.	All children below the age of 21 who have an organic disease, defect or condition which may hinder the achievement of normal growth or development, as defined by the state, are eligible for diagnostic services. Flexible income standards are applied for treatment services.	(H) Interstate and Foreign Commerce (Health and the Environment). (S) Finance (Health).
Community Mental Health Centers.	Community Mental Health Centers Amendment of 1975, 42 U.S.C. §2689, et seq.(42 CFR 54).	HEW/Public Health Service (Alcohol, Drug Abuse and Mental Health Administration, National Institute of Mental Health, Division of Mental Health Service Programs).	To continue and expand community mental health services.	Federal grants to public or nonprofit organizations or agencies.	Anyone residing in the catchment area of a center is theoretically eligible for its services. To be eligible for federal funds, a center must provide, in addition to other services, specialized services for children and screening, follow-up care and transitional halfway house services for persons discharged from mental health facilities.	(H) Interstate and Foreign Commerce (Health and the Environment). (S) Human Resources (Health and Scientific Research).
Special Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children. (WIC).	National School Lunch Act of 1966, as amended, 42 U.S.C. §1786 (7 CFR 246).	DOA/Food and Nutrition Service.	To provide special nutritious food supplements to pregnant and lactating women and to children under age 5 at nutritional risk because of inadequate income and nutritional need.	Federal grants to states.....	Children under five years of age determined to be at nutritional risk because of inadequate income and nutritional need. States may establish their own income standards	(H) Education and Labor (Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education). (S) Agriculture Nutrition and Forestry (Nutrition).

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Title I Program for Handicapped Children in State-administered or State-supported Schools.	Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended, 20 U.S.C. §241c-1 (45 CFR 116, 116b).	HEW/OE (Bureau of Education for the Handicapped [programmatic responsibility] and Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education/Div. of Education for the Disadvantaged [fiscal responsibility]).	To provide funds to state agencies to supplement and strengthen educational programs for handicapped children in state operated and state-supported schools.	Formula grants: funds allocated on the basis of average daily attendance in the schools and a percentage of the average per pupil expenditure in the state or the United States; funds distributed to facilities on a grant basis.	Handicapped children under 21 who are in need of special services and are in state supported schools, including facilities with which the state contracts for special educational services.	(H) Education and Labor) Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education). (S) Human Resources (Education, Arts and Humanities).
Title I Program for Children in State-administered Institutions Serving Neglected or Delinquent Children.	Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended, 20 U.S.C. 241c-3 (45 CFR 116, 116c).	HEW/OE (Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education/Div. of Education for the Disadvantaged).	To provide funds to state agencies for programs and projects designed to meet the special educational needs of children in state institutions for neglected or delinquent children.	Formula grants to state agencies; funds allocated on the basis of the ADA in the institutions and a percentage of the average per pupil expenditure in the state or in the United States.	Educationally disadvantaged children under age 21 who are in institutions for delinquent or neglected children for which the state agency is responsible for providing free public education. These include public or private nonprofit residential facilities for children adjudged delinquent, adult correctional facilities, and public or private nonprofit residential facilities for at least 10 neglected children for whom the facility has been granted custodial responsibility.	(H) Education and Labor (Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education). (S) Human Resources (Education, Arts and Humanities).
Title I Program for Children in Local Institutions Serving Neglected or Delinquent Children.	Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended, 20 U.S.C. § 241a, et seq. (45 CFR 116, 116a).	HEW/OE Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education/Div. of Education for the Disadvantaged).	To provide funds to local educational agencies for programs and projects designed to meet the special educational needs of educationally deprived children in school attendance areas with high concentrations of low income families and for children in local institutions for neglected or delinquent children.	Formula grants to local educational agencies. State allocation based in part on count of children 5 to 17 in school district residing (for at least 30 days) in local institutions for neglected or delinquent children. The local educational agencies are to provide programs in the institutions.	Educationally disadvantaged children ages 5–17 who reside in local institutions for delinquent children (public or private residential facilities, including adult correctional institutions) or for neglected children (public or private residential facilities operated for the care of at least 10 children committed or placed voluntarily).	(H) Education and Labor (Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education). (S) Human Resources (Education, Arts and Humanities).
BIA Boarding School Program.	25 U.S.C. § 13 (BIA Manual).	DOI/BIA (Office of Indian Education Programs).	To operate federal boarding schools for Indian children living on Indian owned or restricted trust lands where other facilities are not available and to maintain federal dormitories for children attending public schools.	Direct operation of the boarding schools.	Children of one fourth or more degree of Indian blood who are members of a federally recognized tribe and reside on or near a reservation are given priority.	(H) Education and Labor (Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education). (S) Select Committee on Indian Affairs.

FEDERAL PROGRAMS AFFECTING CHILDREN WITHOUT HOMES—Continued

Program	Authorizing Legislation (Regulations)	Administering Agency (Program Office)[1]	Purpose	Type of Aid	Children Eligible for Program	Authorizing Congressional Committees (Subcommittees)
School Lunch Program in Residential Institutions.	National School Lunch Act, Sec. 17 as amended by PL 94-105, 42 U.S.C. § 1751, et seq. (7 CFR 210).	DOA/Food and Nutrition Service.	To make children's residential institutions eligible for the school lunch program.	Formula grants on a performance funding basis.	Financially eligible children under 21 in public or licensed private nonprofit residential child care institutions which operate principally for the care of children, including homes for the mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, physically handicapped and unmarried mothers; group homes, halfway houses, orphanages, temporary shelters, long term care facilities for chronically ill children and juvenile detention centers.	(H) Education and Labor (Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education). (S) Agriculture, Nutrition and Forestry (Nutrition).
Food Donation Program-Commodity to Institutions Portion.	7 U.S.C. § 612c (7 CFR 250).	DOA/Food and Nutrition Service.	To make surplus commodities available for distribution to qualifying households, individuals, schools, charitable institutions, nutrition programs for the elderly and summer camps.	Donated foods to qualifying facilities.	Children in eligible institutions which include nonpenal non-educational public facilities and nonprofit private facilities organized for charitable or public welfare purposes, nonprofit private hospitals, and state correctional institutions for minors.	(H) Education and Labor (Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education). (S) Agriculture, Nutrition and Forestry (Nutrition).
Foster Grandparent Program.	Domestic Volunteer Services Act of 1973, 42 U.S.C. § 5002, et seq. (45 CFR 1208).	ACTION (Older Americans Volunteer Programs).	To provide volunteer opportunities to low income persons age 60 and over by having them render supportive services, for which they receive a stipend to children with special needs in health, education, welfare or related settings, both institutional and non-institutional.	Grants or contracts for up to 90 percent of the cost of the project; 100 percent funding in special circumstances.	Generally children with speical needs who are 17 or under, with preference to younger children. However, a child may continue with a a volunteer through age 20 if improvement is expected and there is a written plan for an alternative relationship for the person after age 20. Children with special needs include	(H) Education and Labor (Select Education). (S) Human Resources (Unemployment and Poverty).

					physically handicapped, delinquent, emotionally disturbed, mentally retarded or dependent and neglected children who are in hospitals, correctional facilities and other residential institutions; in schools, day care establishments or in private residences. The child care facilities must be licensed or certified.	
Retirad Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP).	Domestic Volumteer Services Act of 1973, 42 U.S.C. § 5001 et seq. (45 CFR 1209).	ACTION (Older Americans Volunteer Programs).	To develop a recognized role in the community for adults age 60 and over through significant volunteer service. No compensation for service is provided.	Grants to state agencies on aging and other public and non-profit private agencies and organizations for up to 90 percent of the cost for the development of and/or operations of volunteer projects. The required local share increases 10 percent each year the grant is continued.	Children being served at RSVP volunteer stations which include but are not limited to schools, courts, day care centers, hospitals, welfare agencies, nursing homes and institutions.	(H) Education and Labor (Select Education). (S) Human Resources (Unemployment and Proverty).
Assistance to States for the Education of Handicapped Children.	Education for All Handicapped Children Act, 20 U.S.C. § 1401, et seq. (45 CFR 121a).	HEW/OE (Bureau of Education for the Handicapped).	To establish necessary rights to insure that all handicapped children receive the free appropriate public education to which they are entitled. Grants are provided to the states to assist them in providing for the education of all handicapped children, with priority given to handicapped children receiving no education and children who are severely handicapped.	Formula grants to states distributed on the basis of the number of children 3-21 who are receiving special education and related services multiplied by an annually increasing percentage of the state's average per-pupil expenditure.	Children who have been evaluated as mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, deaf-blind, multi-handicapped, or having specific learning disabilities, and because of those conditions need special education and related services. To receive funds a state must include a number of provisions in its annual state plan, including an assurance to provide full education opportunities to all handicapped children, due process safeguards and placement in the least restrictive environment.	(H) Education and Labor (Select Education). (S) Human Resources (Handicapped).

Program	Authorizing Legislation (Regulations)	Administering Agency (Program Office) [1]	Purpose	Type of Aid	Children Eligible for Program	Authorizing Congressional Committees (Subcommittees)
Civil Rights Act for Handicapped persons.	Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Section 504, 29 U.S.C. § 794 (45 CFR 84).	HEW serves as the coordinator of all 504 enforcement programs throughout the government. The Office for Civil Rights is responsible for compliance in HEW programs.	To prohibit any recipient of federal funds from operating program in a manner that discriminates in any way against beneficiaries who are handicapped, believed to be handicapped, or have a record of handicaps.	Civil rights act.....	All handicapped persons are protected by section 504. It applies to all recipients of federal funds and to all programs and activities that benefit from such assistance.	(H) Education and Labor (Select Education). (S) Human Resources (Handicapped).
Developmental Disabilities Program.	Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Mental Health Centers Construction Act of 1963, as amended by PL 91-517 and PL 94-103, the Developmentally Disabled Assistance and Bill of Rights Acts. 42 U.S.C. § 6001, et seq. (45 CFR 1385, 1386, 1387).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Handicapped individuals, Developmental Disabilities Office).	To provide financial assistance to states for planning, administration, services and construction of facilities for the developmentally disabled. At least 30 percent of a state's allotment in fiscal year 1977 and thereafter must be used for developing and implementing plans designed to eliminate inappropriate placement in institutions of persons with developmental disabilities. Funds are also available for special projects and for the establishment of demonstration facilities and training programs in university affiliated facilities.	Formula grants; allotted on the basis of population, need for services and facilities for the developmentally disabled and per capita income. Grants to public or nonprofit entities (for up to 90 percent of the cost of the project) are also available for special projects, as are project grants to university affiliated programs.	Children participating in or affected by projects must have a developmental disability that is a disability which is attributable: 1) to mental retardation, cerebral palsy, epilepsy, or autism, 2) to any other condition found to be closely related to mental retardation (in terms of intellectual and adaptive problems or required treatment) or 3) to dyslexia resulting from one of the above. The disability must further have originated before age 18, be expected to continue indefinitely and constitute a substantial handicap. A child with a developmental disbility may receive services in his own home, a foster home, or an institution.	(H) Interstate and Foreign Commerce (Health and the Environment). (S) Human Resources (Handicapped).
Child Welfare Research and Demonstration Program.	42 U.S.C. § 626 (42 CFR 205; 45 CFR 16).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Children, Youth and Families, Children's Bureau).	To provide funds for special research or demonstration projects to improve the quality of child welfare programs and demonstrate new service approaches.	Grants and contracts to public or private nonprofit institutions of higher learning and public or nonprofit agencies or organizations engaged in research or child welfare activities.	Eligibility varies with each demonstration project, but generally any child in need of child welfare services.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).

Social Services Research and Demonstration Program.	42 U.S.C. §§ 626, 1310, 1315 (42 CFR 205; 45 CFR 16, 63, 204).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Public Services).	To provide funds for research or demonstration projects to improve social services programs management and develop improved social service delivery; including child welfare services.	Grants and contracts. Grants to state agencies and nonprofit private organizations, contracts with profit or nonprofit organizations.	Not applicable. These are primarily research, rather than direct service projects, a portion of which concern protective services for children and youth.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).
Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.	Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, 42 U.S.C. §§ 5651–5661.	DOJ/LEAA (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention).	To conduct and coordinate research and evaluation of juvenile justice and delinquency prevention, activities, serve as a national clearinghouse and information center on juvenile delinquency, and provide training for persons dealing with juveniles.	Project grants, contracts and technical assistance to public or private agencies, organizations or individuals.	Not applicable. Most of these are research and evaluation projects.	(H) Education and Labor (Economic Opportunity). (S) Judiciary (Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency).
Child Welfare Services Training Grants.	42 U.S.C. § 626 (42 CFR 205; 45 CFR 16).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Children Youth and Families).	To train personnel for work in the field of child welfare.	Grants to accredited public or nonprofit institutions of higher learning which may be any of three types: teaching grants, traineeship grants, or short-term in-service training grants.	Not applicable. Short-term training can be provided to foster parents, institutional personnel, homemakers, day care staff and personnel.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).
Social Services Training Grants.	42 U.S.C. § 1397 et seq. (45 CFR §§ 228.80–85).	HEW/OHDS (Administration for Public Services).	To provide training directly related to the provision of social services for staff of the Title XX agency, service delivery personnel of provider agencies, and students committed to employment in the Title XX agency.	Formula grants: state agency may then provide training through grants to accredited educational institutions, financial assistance to students, or in-service training.	Not applicable. In-service and short-and long-term training in educational facilities may be provided to foster parents caring for Title XX children, and foster parents contracting with the agency to provide special services, as well as other agency staff, provider agencies, or individuals with whom the agency has purchase-of-service contracts.	(H) Ways and Means (Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation). (S) Finance (Public Assistance).

[1] Source: Children's Defense Fund, Children Without Homes, Washington, D.C., 1978, pp. 258–275.
[2] The following abbreviations for federal agencies and offices are used throughout this appendix: HEW (Department of Health Education and Welfare), SSA (Social Security Administration), OHDS (Office of Human Development Services), DOJ, (Department of Justice), LEAA (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration), DOI (Department of Interior), BIA (Bureau of Indian Affairs), DOD (Department of Defense), DOA (Department of Agriculture), OD (Office of Education).

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Appendix V

II

Calendar No. 756

96TH CONGRESS
2D SESSION

S. 2441

[Report No. 96-705]

To amend the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, and for other purposes.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

MARCH 19 (legislative day, JANUARY 3), 1980

Mr. BAYH (for himself, Mr. KENNEDY, Mr. CULVER, Mr. DECONCINI, Mr. BAUCUS, Mr. MATHIAS, and Mr. DOLE) introduced the following bill; which was read twice and referred to the Committee on the Judiciary

MAY 14 (legislative day, JANUARY 3), 1980

Reported by Mr. BAYH, with an amendment

[Strike out all after the enacting clause and insert the part printed in italic]

A BILL

To amend the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,

~~SHORT TITLE~~

~~SECTION 1. This Act shall be cited as the "Violent Juvenile Crime Control Act of 1980".~~

~~TITLE I—AMENDMENTS TO TITLE I OF THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT OF 1974~~

~~SEC. 101. SECTION 101(a) OF THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT OF 1974 IS AMENDED—~~

~~(1) BY STRIKING OUT "AND" IMMEDIATELY AFTER THE SEMICOLON IN PARAGRAPH (6);~~

~~(2) BY STRIKING OUT THE PERIOD AT THE END OF PARAGRAPH (7) AND INSERTING A SEMICOLON AND "AND"; AND~~

~~(3) BY ADDING AT THE END THEREOF THE FOLLOWING:~~

~~"(8) THE JUSTICE SYSTEM SHOULD GIVE ADDITIONAL ATTENTION TO VIOLENT CRIMES COMMITTED BY JUVENILES, PARTICULARLY TO THE AREAS OF IDENTIFICATION, APPREHENSION, SPEEDY ADJUDICATION, SENTENCING, AND REHABILITATION.".~~

~~SEC. 102. (a) PARAGRAPHS (4) AND (5) OF SECTION 102 OF THAT ACT ARE REPEALED.~~

~~(b) SECTION 103(7) OF THAT ACT IS AMENDED BY INSERTING AFTER "PACIFIC ISLANDS" THE FOLLOWING: "THE VIRGIN ISLANDS, GUAM, AMERICAN SAMOA, THE COMMONWEALTH OF THE NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS,".~~

~~(c) SECTION 103(9) OF THAT ACT IS AMENDED BY STRIKING OUT "LAW ENFORCEMENT" AND INSERTING "JUVENILE JUSTICE".~~

~~TITLE II—AMENDMENTS TO TITLE II OF THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT OF 1974~~

~~SEC. 201. (a) Section 201 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended to read as follows:~~

~~"SEC. 201. (a) There is hereby established within the Department of Justice under the general authority of the Administrator of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (referred to in this Act as the 'Office'). The Office shall be under the direction of an Administrator, who shall be nominated by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Administrator shall administer the provisions of this Act through the Office. The Administrator shall have final authority to award, administer, modify, extend, terminate, monitor, evaluate, reject, or deny all grants, cooperative agreements and contracts from, and applications for, funds made available under this title.~~

~~"(b) The Administrator may prescribe, in accordance with section 553 of title 5, United States Code, such rules and regulations as are necessary or appropriate to carry out the purposes of this title.".~~

~~(b) Section "201(c)" of that Act is renumbered "301(c)" and amended by striking out "of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration".~~

~~(c) Section "201(f)" of that Act is renumbered "201(d)".~~

~~(d) A new subsection "(e)" is added to read as follows:~~

~~"(e) There shall be established in the Office a Legal Advisor who shall be appointed by the Administrator whose function shall be to supervise and direct the Legal Advisor Unit whose responsibilities shall include legal policy development, implementation, and dissemination and the coordination of such matters with all relevant departmental units. The Legal Advisor, when appropriate, shall consult with the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and the Office of Justice Assistance, Research, and Statistics on legal nonpolicy matters relating to the provisions of this Act.".~~

~~(e) Section "201(g)" of that Act is renumbered "201(f)" and amended by striking out "five" and inserting "six".~~

~~(f) A new subsection "(g)" is added to read as follows:~~

~~"(g) The Administrator shall provide the United States Senate Committee on the Judiciary and the United States House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor with a detailed evaluation of the Railway Juvenile Awareness Project, the so-called 'Scared Straight' program or other similar programs, no later than December 31, 1980.".~~

SEC. 202. (a) Section 204(b) of that Act is amended by striking out ", with the assistance of Associate Administrator,".

(b) Section 204(g) of that Act is amended by striking out "Administration" and inserting "Office".

SEC. 203. Section 208(d) of that Act is amended by striking out "Corrections" and inserting "Justice".

SEC. 204. (a) Section 222(a) of that Act is amended by striking the last "and" and inserting immediately after "Pacific Islands" the following: ", the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and any territory or possession of the United States,".

(b) Section 222(b) of that Act is amended by striking out "the Virgin Islands, American Samoa, Guam, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands" and inserting "as defined in section 103(7),".

SEC. 205. (a) Section 223(a) of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(a) In order to receive formula grants under this part, a State shall submit a plan for carrying out its purposes in accordance with regulations established under this title, such plan must —".

(b) Section 223(a)(3)(iii) of that Act is amended by striking out "established pursuant to section 203(c) of the Omni-

bus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended".

(c) Section 223(a)(3)(iv) of that Act is amended by striking out "section 520(b) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended," and inserting "section 1002 of the Justice System Improvement Act of 1979,".

(d) Section 223(a) of that Act is amended by striking out the last sentence.

(e) Section 223(c) of that Act is amended by striking out ", with the concurrence of the Associate Administrator,".

(f) Section 223(d) of that Act is amended by striking out ", in accordance with sections 509, 510, and 511 of title I of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968,".

SEC. 206. The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended by substituting "Priority Juvenile" for "Special Emphasis" each time it appears.

SEC. 207. Section 225(b) (5) and (6) of that Act is amended by striking out "planning agency" and inserting "advisory group".

SEC. 208. Section 225(b)(8) of that Act is amended by striking out "agency" the first time it appears and inserting "advisory group".

SEC. 209. (a) Section 228(b) of that Act is amended by striking out "not funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration,".

(b) Section 228(g) of that Act is amended—

(1) by striking out "part" and inserting "title"; and

(2) by striking out "or will become available by virtue of the application of the provisions of section 509 of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended".

SEC. 210. Section 241(c) of that Act is amended by striking out "Law Enforcement and Criminal".

SEC. 211. (a) Section 261(a) of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(a) To carry out the purposes of this title there is authorized to be appropriated $200,000,000 for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1981, 1982, and 1983, and $225,000,000 for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1984, and 1985. Appropriated funds not obligated by the end of each fiscal year, shall revert to the Secretary for the purposes of Title III, no later than January 1, of the subsequent fiscal year.".

(b) Section 261(b) of that Act as amended by section 1002 of the Justice System Improvement Act of 1979 is amended by striking all after the last "appropriations" and inserting, "under the Justice System Improvement Act of 1979, for programs aimed to curb violent crimes committed by juveniles, namely, murder, forcible rape, robbery, aggra-

vated assault, and arson involving bodily harm, particularly as to the areas of identification, apprehension, speedy adjudication, sentencing, and rehabilitation. Implementation, including guidelines, of this subsection shall be the responsibility of the Administrator of the Office.".

SEC. 212. Section 262 of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 262. Of the appropriation for the Office under this Act, there shall be allocated an adequate amount for administrative expenses other than those support services performed for the Office by the Office of Justice Assistance, Research, and Statistics.".

SEC. 213. Section 263 (a), (b), and (c) of that Act are amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 263. The amendments made by the Violent Juvenile Crime Control Act of 1986 shall take effect upon enactment.".

TITLE III—AMENDMENTS TO THE RUNAWAY YOUTH ACT

SEC. 301. Amend the caption "TITLE III—RUNAWAY YOUTH" by inserting "AND HOMELESS" immediately after "RUNAWAY".

SEC. 302. (a) Section 301 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended by inserting "and Homeless" immediately after "Runaway,".

SEC. 303. (a) Section 302(1) of that Act is amended by adding "or who are otherwise homeless" after "permission".

(b) Section 302(2) of that Act is amended by adding "and homeless" after "runaway".

SEC. 304. (a) Section 311 of that Act is amended by inserting "(a)" immediately after "SEC. 311.".

(b) Section 311 of that Act is amended by adding at the end thereof the following:

"(b) The Secretary is authorized to make grants for the purposes of providing a national telephone communications system to link runaway and homeless youths with their families and with service providers.".

SEC. 305. (a) Section 312(a) of that Act is amended by striking the period and inserting "or who are otherwise homeless.".

(b) Section 312(b)(5) of that Act is amended by inserting "and homeless" after "runaway" the first time it appears.

SEC. 306. Section 315(1) of that Act is amended by adding "and homeless" after "runaway".

SEC. 307. (a) Section 341(a) of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(a) To carry out the purposes of part A of this title there is authorized to be appropriated $25,000,000 for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1981, 1982, and

~~1982, and $30,000,000 for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1984 and 1985.".~~

~~(b) Section 341(b) is amended by striking "Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended." and inserting "Justice System Improvement Act of 1979.".~~

~~TITLE IV—MISCELLANEOUS CONFORMING AMENDMENTS~~

~~SEC. 401. Section 5316 of title 5, United States Code, is amended by striking out "Associate Administrator, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention" and inserting "Administrator, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention,".~~

~~SEC. 402. Section 4351(b) of title 18, United States Code, is amended by striking out "Associate".~~

~~SEC. 403. Section 1002 of the Justice System Improvement Act of 1979 is amended by striking out all that appears after "title" and inserting the following: "for programs aimed to curb violent crimes committed by juveniles, namely, murder, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, and arson involving bodily harm, particularly to the areas of identification, apprehension, speedy adjudication, sentencing and rehabilitation.".~~

~~SEC. 404. (a) The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended by striking out "Associate" each time it appears.~~

SHORT TITLE

SECTION 1. This Act shall be cited as the "Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act Amendments of 1980".

TITLE I—AMENDMENTS TO TITLE I OF THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT OF 1974

SEC. 101. Section 101(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended—

(1) by striking out "and" immediately after the semicolon in paragraph (6);

(2) by striking out the period at the end of paragraph (7) and inserting a semicolon and "and"; and

(3) by adding at the end thereof the following:

"(8) the justice system should give additional attention to violent crimes committed by juveniles, particularly to the areas of identification, apprehension, speedy adjudication, sentencing, and rehabilitation.".

SEC. 102. (a) Paragraph 5 of section 103 of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(5) the term 'Administrator' means the agency head designated by section 201(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as amended;"

(b) Section 103(7) of that Act is amended by inserting after "Pacific Islands" the following: "the Virgin Islands, Guam, American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands,".

(c) Section 103(9) of that Act is amended by striking out "law enforcement" and inserting "juvenile justice".

(d) Section 103(1) of that Act is amended by inserting "special educational," immediately before "vocational".

(e) Section 103(12) of that Act is amended by striking out "and" immediately after the semicolon.

(f) Section 103(13) of that Act is amended—

(1) by inserting "special educational," immediately before "social"; and

(2) by striking out the period at the end thereof and inserting in lieu thereof a semicolon and "and".

(g) Section 103 of that Act is amended by adding at the end thereof the following:

"(14) The term 'handicapping conditions' means the conditions described in the definition of the term 'handicapped children' in section 602(1) of the Education of the Handicapped Act (20 U.S.C. 1401).".

TITLE II—AMENDMENTS TO TITLE II OF THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT OF 1974

SEC. 201. (a) Section 201 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 201. (a) There is hereby established within the Department of Justice under the general authority of the Administrator of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, the Office of Juvenile Justice and delinquency Prevention (referred to in this Act as the 'Office'). The Office shall be under the direction of an Administrator, who shall be nominated by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Administrator shall administer the provisions of this Act through the Office. The Administrator shall have final authority to award, administer, modify, extend, terminate, monitor, evaluate, reject, or deny all grants, cooperative agreements and contracts from, and applications for, funds made available under this title.

"(b) The Administrator may prescribe, in accordance with section 553 of title 5, United States Code, such rules and regulations as are necessary or appropriate to carry out the purposes of this title.".

(b) Section "201(e)" of that Act is renumbered "201(c)" and amended by striking out "of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration".

(c) Section "201(f)" of that Act is renumbered "201(d)".

(d) A new subsection "(e)" is added to read as follows:

"(e) There shall be established in the Office a Legal Advisor who shall be appointed by the administrator whose function shall be to supervise and direct the Legal Advisor Unit whose responsibilities shall include legal policy development, implementation, and dissemination and the coordination of such matters with all relevant departmental units. The Legal Advisor, when appropriate, shall consult with the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and the Office of Justice Assistance, Research, and Statistics on legal non-policy matters relating to the provisions of this Act.".

(e) Section "201(g)" of that Act is renumbered "201(f)" and amended by striking out "-five" and inserting "-six".

(f) New subsections "(g)" and "(h)" are added to read as follows:

"(g) The Administrator shall provide the United States Senate Committee on the Judiciary and the United States House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor with a detailed evaluation of the Rahway Juvenile

Awareness Project, the so-called 'Scared-Straight' program or other similar programs, no later than June 30, 1981.

"(h) The administrator, in cooperation with the Director of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, shall conduct a study of juvenile justice and delinquency prevention policies, programs, and practices affecting native Americans and shall report on the results of that study to the United States Senate Committee on the Judiciary and the United States House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor no later than December 31, 1981. Such report shall contain recommendations regarding actions which should be taken, including suggested legislation, and shall address, at a minimum, the nature and quality of juvenile programs on Indian reservations, the impact of Federal Government activities on such programs, the consistency of ongoing efforts with the objectives of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act, and the juvenile justice relationships between Indian tribes and contiguous units of local government.".

SEC. 202. (a) Section 204(b) of that Act is amended by striking out ", with the assistance of Associate Administrator,".

(b) Section 204(g) of that Act is amended by striking out "Administration" and inserting "Office".

SEC. 203. Section 207(c) of that Act is amended by inserting "and other handicapping conditions" immediately after "learning disabilities".

SEC. 204. Section 208(d) of that Act is amended by striking out "Corrections" and inserting "Justice".

SEC. 205. (a) Section 222(a) of that Act is amended by striking the last "and" and inserting immediately after "Pacific Islands" the following: ", the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and any territory or possession of the United States,".

(b) Section 222(b) of that Act is amended by striking out "the Virgin Islands, American Samoa, Guam, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands" and inserting "as defined in section 103(7),".

SEC. 206. (a) Section 223(a) of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(a) In order to receive formula grants under this part, a State shall submit a plan for carrying out its purposes in accordance with regulations established under this title, such plan must—".

(b) Section 223(a)(3)(iii) of that Act is amended by striking out "established pursuant to section 203(c) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended".

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(c) Section 223(a)(3)(iv) of that Act is amended by striking out "section 520(b) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended," and inserting "section 1002 of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended,".

(d) Section 223(a)(3)(B) of that Act is amended by inserting "special education," immediately before "or youth services departments".

(e) Section 223(a)(3)(C) of that Act is amended—

(1) by inserting "special education" immediately before "or social services for children"; and

(2) by inserting "and other handicapping conditions" immediately after "learning disabilities".

(f) Section 223(a)(15) of that Act is amended by striking out "mentally retarded and emotionally or physically".

(g) Section 223(a) of that Act is amended by striking out the last sentence.

(h) Section 223(c) of that Act is amended by striking out ", with the concurrence of the Associate Administrator,".

(i) Section 223(d) of that Act is amended by striking out ", in accordance with sections 509, 510, and 511 of title I of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968,".

SEC. 207. Section 224(a)(11) of that Act is amended by inserting "and other handicapping conditions" immediately after "learning disabilities".

SEC. 208. The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended by substituting "Priority Juvenile" for "Special Emphasis" each time it appears.

SEC. 209. Section 225(b) (5) and (6) of that Act is amended by striking out "planning agency" and inserting "advisory group".

SEC. 210. Section 225(b)(8) of that Act is amended by striking out "agency" the first time it appears and inserting "advisory group".

SEC. 211. (a) Section 228(b) of that Act is amended by striking out "not funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration,".

(b) Section 228(g) of that Act is amended—

(1) by striking out "part" and inserting "title"; and

(2) by striking out "or will become available by virtue of the application of the provisions of section 509 of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended".

SEC. 212. (a) Section 241(c) of that Act is amended by striking out "Law Enforcement and Criminal".

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(b) Section 241(d) of that Act is amended by inserting "and special educational" immediately after "other educational".

SEC. 213. (a) Section 261(a) of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(a) To carry out the purposes of this title there is authorized to be appropriated $150,000,000 for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1981 and 1982, $175,000,000 for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1983, and $200,000,000 for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1984 and 1985. Appropriated funds not obligated by the end of each fiscal year, shall be allocated directly to the States participating in the Act on the basis of relative population of people under age eighteen for the purpose of implementing section 223(a)(13), no later than January 1, of the subsequent fiscal year.".

(b) Section 261(b) of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(b) In addition to the funds appropriated under section 261(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, there shall be maintained from appropriations for each fiscal year, at least 19.15 per centum of the total appropriations under title I of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, for juvenile delinquency programs, with emphasis on programs aimed to curb violent

crimes committed by juveniles, namely, murder, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, and arson involving bodily harm, particularly to the areas of identification, apprehension, speedy adjudication, sentencing and rehabilitation. This subsection shall be waived when the total appropriations for each fiscal year under title I of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 do not exceed $150,000,000. Implementation, including guidelines, of this subsection shall be the responsibility of the Administrator of the Office.".

SEC. 214. Section 262 of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 262. Of the appropriation for the Office under this Act, there shall be allocated an adequate amount for administrative expenses other than those support services performed for the Office by the Office of Justice Assistance, Research, and Statistics.".

SEC. 215. Section 263 (a), (b), and (c) of that Act are amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 263. The amendments made by the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act Amendments of 1980 shall take effect upon enactment.".

TITLE III—AMENDMENTS TO THE RUNAWAY YOUTH ACT

SEC. 301. Amend the caption "TITLE III—RUNAWAY YOUTH" by inserting "AND HOMELESS" immediately after "RUNAWAY".

SEC. 302. Section 301 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended by inserting "and Homeless" immediately after "Runaway,".

SEC. 303. (a) Section 302(1) of that Act is amended by adding "or who are otherwise homeless" after "permission".

(b) Section 302(2) of that Act is amended by adding "and homeless" after "runaway".

SEC. 304. (a) Section 311 of that Act is amended by inserting "(a)" immediately after "SEC. 311.".

(b) Section 311 of that Act is amended by adding at the end thereof the following:

"(b) The Secretary is authorized to make grants for the purposes of providing a national telephone communications system to link runaway and homeless youths with their families and with service providers.

"(c)(1) In addition, the Secretary is authorized to make grants and to enter into contracts with governmental and nonprofit private agencies for the purposes of providing counseling and other services to meet the immediate needs of runaway or otherwise homeless youth, youth in trouble or in

crisis, and the families of such youth, in a manner which is outside the law enforcement structure and juvenile justice system.

"(2) The Secretary may provide technical assistance and training to such agencies who receive grants or enter into contracts under this subsection.

"(3) The size of the grant or contract shall be determined by the number of such youth and families in the community and the existing availability of such services.".

SEC. 305. (a) Section 312(a) of that Act is amended by striking the period and inserting "or who are otherwise homeless.".

(b) Section 312(b)(5) of that Act is amended by inserting "and homeless" after "runaway" the first time it appears.

SEC. 306. (a) Section 315(1) of that Act is amended by adding "and homeless" after "runaway".

(b) Section 315 of that Act is amended—

(1) by inserting "(a)" immediately after "SEC. 315."; and

(2) by adding at the end thereof the following:

"(b) The Secretary is authorized to design the information instruments required to collect any information necessary to comply with the reporting requirements of this sec-

tion, and to assess the need for, and to determine the effectiveness of, programs and services funded under this part.".

SEC. 307. Section 341(a) of that Act is amended to read as follows:

"(a) To carry out the purposes of part A of this title there is authorized to be appropriated $25,000,000 for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, and 1985.".

TITLE IV—MISCELLANEOUS CONFORMING AMENDMENTS

SEC. 401. Section 5316 of title 5, United States Code, is amended by striking out "Associate Administrator, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention" and inserting "Administrator, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention,".

SEC. 402. Section 4351(b) of title 18, United States Code, is amended by striking out "Associate".

SEC. 403. Section 1002 of title I of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 is amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 1002. In addition to the funds appropriated under section 261(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, there shall be maintained from appropriations for each fiscal year, at least 19.15 per centum of the total appropriations under this title, for juvenile delin-

quency programs, with emphasis on programs aimed to curb violent crimes committed by juveniles, namely, murder, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, and arson involving bodily harm, particularly to the areas of identification, apprehension, speedy adjudication, sentencing and rehabilitation. This section shall be waived when the total appropriations for each fiscal year under this title do not exceed $150,000,000. Implementation, including guidelines, of this section shall be the responsibility of the Administrator of the Office.".

SEC. 404. The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 is amended by striking out "Associate" each time it appears.

APPENDIX W

Union Calendar No. 579

96TH CONGRESS
2D SESSION

H. R. 6704

[Report No. 96-946]

To amend the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 to extend the authorization of appropriations for such Act, and for other purposes.

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

MARCH 5, 1980

Mr. ANDREWS of North Carolina (for himself, Mr. PERKINS, and Mr. COLEMAN) introduced the following bill; which was referred to the Committee on Education and Labor

MAY 13, 1980

Additional sponsors: Mr. HINSON, Mr. KILDEE, Mr. HAWKINS, Mr. RAILSBACK, Mr. CORRADA, Mr. STACK, Mr. KOGOVSEK, and Mrs. CHISHOLM

MAY 13, 1980

Reported with an amendment, committed to the Committee of the Whole House on the State of the Union, and ordered to be printed

[Strike out all after the enacting clause and insert the part printed in italic]

[For text of introduced bill, see copy of bill as introduced on March 5, 1980]

A BILL

To amend the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 to extend the authorization of appropriations for such Act, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,

SHORT TITLE

SECTION 1. This Act may be cited as the "Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1980".

AUTHORIZATION OF APPROPRIATIONS

SEC. 2. (a) Section 261(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5671(a)) is amended—

(1) by striking out "$150,000,000" and all that follows through '1979, and"; and

(2) by striking out "for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1980" and inserting in lieu thereof "for each of the fiscal years ending September 30, 1981, September 30, 1982, September 30, 1983, and September 30, 1984".

(b) Section 341(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5751(a)) is amended by striking out "June 30, 1975" and all that follows through "1980" and inserting in lieu thereof the following: "September 30, 1981, September 30, 1982, September 30, 1983, and September 30, 1984".

FINDINGS

SEC. 3. Section 101(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5601(a)) is amended—

(1) in paragraph (4) thereof, by inserting "alcohol and other" after "abuse";

(2) in paragraph (6) thereof, by striking out "and" at the end thereof;

(3) in paragraph (7) thereof, by striking out the period at the end thereof and inserting in lieu thereof "; and"; and

(4) by adding at the end thereof the following new paragraph:

"(8) the juvenile justice system should give additional attention to the problem of juveniles who commit serious crimes, with particular attention given to the areas of sentencing, providing resources necessary for informed dispositions, and rehabilitation.".

PURPOSE

SEC. 4. (a) Section 102(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5602(a)) is amended—

(1) in paragraph (6) thereof, by striking out "and" at the end thereof;

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(2) in paragraph (7) thereof, by striking out the period at the end thereof and inserting in lieu thereof "; and"; and

(3) by adding at the end thereof the following new paragraph:

"(8) to assist State and local governments in removing juveniles from jails and lockups for adults.".

(b) Section 102(b)(1) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5602(b)(1)) is amended by inserting before the semicolon at the end thereof the following: ", including methods with a special focus on maintaining and strengthening the family unit so that juveniles may be retained in their homes".

DEFINITIONS

SEC. 5. (a) Section 103(1) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5603(1)) is amended by inserting "special education," after "training,".

(b) Section 103(4) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5603(4)) is amended to read as follows:

"(4)(A) the term 'Office of Justice Assistance, Research, and Statistics' means the office established by section 801(a) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968;

"(B) the term 'Law Enforcement Assistance Administration' means the administration established by section 101 of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968;

"(C) the term 'National Institute of Justice' means the institute established by section 202(a) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968; and

"(D) the term 'Bureau of Justice Statistics' means the bureau established by section 302(a) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968;".

(c) Section 103(7) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5603(7)) is amended by striking out "and any territory or possession of the United States" and inserting in lieu thereof "the Virgin Islands, Guam, American Samoa, and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands".

(d) Section 103(9) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5603(9)) is amended by striking out "law enforcement" and inserting in lieu thereof "juvenile justice and delinquency prevention".

(e) Section 103(12) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5603(12)) is amended to read as follows:

"(12) the term 'secure detention facility' means any public or private residential facility which—

"(A) includes construction fixtures designed to physically restrict the movements and activities of juveniles or other individuals held in lawful custody in such facility; and

"(B) is used for the temporary placement of any juvenile who is accused of having committed an offense, of any nonoffender, or of any other individual accused of having committed a criminal offense;".

(f) Section 103 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5603) is amended—

(1) by redesignating paragraph (13) as paragraph (15); and

(2) by inserting after paragraph (12) the following new paragraphs:

"(13) the term 'secure correctional facility' means any public or private residential facility which—

"(A) includes construction fixtures designed to physically restrict the movements and activities of juveniles or other individuals held in lawful custody in such facility; and

"(B) is used for the placement, after adjudication and disposition, of any juvenile who has

been adjudicated as having committed an offense, any nonoffender, or any other individual convicted of a criminal offense;

"(14) the term 'serious crime' means criminal homicide, forcible rape, mayhem, kidnapping, aggravated assault, robbery, larceny or theft punishable as a felony, motor vehicle theft, burglary or breaking and entering, extortion accompanied by threats of violence, and arson punishable as a felony; and".

(g) Section 103(15) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in subsection (f)(1), is amended—

(1) by inserting "special education," after "educational,"; and

(2) by striking out "and benefit the addict" and all that follows through ", and his" and inserting in lieu thereof ", including services designed to benefit addicts and other users by eliminating their dependence on alcohol or other addictive or nonaddictive drugs or by controlling their dependence and".

OFFICE OF JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

SEC. 6. (a) Section 201(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(a)) is amended by striking out "Law Enforcement Assistance Ad-

ministration" and inserting in lieu thereof "under the general authority of the Attorney General".

(b) Section 201(d) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(d)) is amended—

(1) in the first sentence thereof, by striking out "direction of" and all that follows through "Administration" and inserting in lieu thereof "general authority of the Attorney General";

(2) in the second sentence thereof, by striking out ", subject to the direction of the Administrator,", and by inserting "prescribe regulations for," before "award";

(3) in the third sentence thereof—

(A) by inserting "of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and the Director of the National Institute of Justice" after "Administrator" the first place it appears therein; and

(B) by inserting "of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention" after "Administrator" the last place it appears therein; and

(4) by striking out the last sentence thereof.

(c) Section 201(e) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(e)) is amended by striking out "Administrator of the Law Enforce-

ment Assistance Administration" and inserting in lieu thereof "Attorney General".

(d) Section 201(f) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(f)) is amended by striking out "Administrator" the last place it appears therein and inserting in lieu thereof "Attorney General".

CONCENTRATION OF FEDERAL EFFORTS

SEC. 7. (a) Section 204(b) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5614(b)) is amended—

(1) by striking out ", with the assistance of the Associate Administrator,"; and

(2) in paragraph (6) thereof, by inserting "and training assistance" after "technical assistance".

(b) Section 204 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5614) is amended by adding at the end thereof the following new subsection:

"(m) To carry out the purposes of this section, there is authorized to be appropriated for each fiscal year an amount which does not exceed 7.5 percent of the total amount appropriated to carry out this title.".

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COORDINATING COUNCIL ON JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

SEC. 8. (a) Section 206(a)(1) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(a)(1)) is amended—

(1) by inserting "the Secretary of Education, the Secretary of Housing and Urban Development, the Director of the Community Services Administration," after "Secretary of Labor,"; and

(2) by striking out "the Secretary of Housing and Urban Development," and inserting in lieu thereof "the Director of the Bureau of Prisons, the Commissioner of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Director for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, the Commissioner for the Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, and the Director of the Youth Development Bureau,".

(b) Section 206(c) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(c)) is amended—

(1) by striking out "the Attorney General and";

(2) by inserting ", and to the Congress," after "President", and

(3) by adding at the end thereof the following new sentence: "The Council shall review, and make recom-

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mendations with respect to, any joint funding proposal undertaken by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention and any agency represented on the Council.".

(c) Section 206(d) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(d)) is amended by striking out "a minimum of four times per year" and inserting in lieu thereof "at least quarterly".

(d) Section 206(e) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(e)) is amended by striking out "may" and inserting in lieu thereof "shall".

(e) Section 206(g) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(g)) is amended by inserting ", not to exceed $500,000 for each fiscal year" before the period at the end thereof.

NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE FOR JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

SEC. 9. Part A of title II of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611 et seq.) is amended by striking out section 207, section 208, and section 209, and inserting in lieu thereof the following new section:

"NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE FOR JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

"SEC. 207. (a)(1) There is hereby established a National Advisory Committee for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (hereinafter in this Act referred to as the 'Advisory Committee') which shall consist of 15 members appointed by the President.

"(2) Members shall be appointed who have special knowledge concerning the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency or the administration of juvenile justice, such as juvenile or family court judges; probation, correctional, or law enforcement personnel; representatives of private, voluntary organizations and community-based programs, including youth workers involved with alternative youth programs; and persons with special training or experience in addressing the problems of youth unemployment, school violence and vandalism, and learning disabilities.

"(3) At least 5 of the individuals appointed as members of the Advisory Committee shall not have attained 24 years of age on or before the date of their appointment. At least 2 of the individuals so appointed shall have been or shall be (at the time of appointment) under the jurisdiction of the juvenile justice system. The Advisory Committee shall contact and seek regular input from juveniles currently under the jurisdiction of the juvenile justice system.

"(4) The President shall designate the Chairman from members appointed to the Advisory Committee. No full-time officer or employee of the Federal Government may be appointed as a member of the Advisory Committee, nor may the Chairman be a full-time officer or employee of any State or local government.

"(b)(1) Members appointed by the President shall serve for terms of 3 years. Of the members first appointed, 5 shall be appointed for terms of 1 year, 5 shall be appointed for terms of 2 years, and 5 shall be appointed for terms of 3 years, as designated by the President at the time of appointment. Thereafter, the term of each member shall be 3 years. The initial appointment of members shall be made not later than 90 days after the effective date of this section.

"(2) Any member appointed to fill a vacancy occurring before the expiration of the term for which the predecessor of such member was appointed shall be appointed only for the remainder of such term. The President shall fill a vacancy not later than 90 days after such vacancy occurs. Members shall be eligible for reappointment and may serve after the expiration of their terms until their successors have taken office.

"(c) The Advisory Committee shall meet at the call of the Chairman, but not less than quarterly. Ten members of the Advisory Committee shall constitute a quorum.

"(d) The Advisory Committee shall—

"(1) review and evaluate, on a continuing basis, Federal policies regarding juvenile justice and delinquency prevention and activities affecting juvenile justice and delinquency prevention conducted or assisted by all Federal agencies;

"(2) advise the Administrator with respect to particular functions or aspects of the work of the Office;

"(3) advise, consult with, and make recommendations to the National Institute of Justice and the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention concerning the overall policy and operations of each such Institute regarding juvenile justice and delinquency prevention research, evaluations, and training provided by each such Institute; and

"(4) make refinements in recommended standards for the administration of juvenile justice at the Federal, State, and local levels which have been reviewed under section 247, and recommend Federal, State, and local action to facilitate the adoption of such standards throughout the United States.

"(e) Beginning in 1981, the Advisory Committee shall submit such interim reports as it considers advisable to the President and to the Congress, and shall submit an annual report to the President and to the Congress not later than

March 31 of each year. Each such report shall describe the activities of the Advisory Committee and shall contain such findings and recommendations as the Advisory Committee considers necessary or appropriate.

"(f) The Advisory Committee shall have staff personnel, appointed by the Chairman with the approval of the Advisory Committee, to assist it in carrying out its activities. The head of each Federal agency shall make available to the Advisory Committee such information and other assistance as it may require to carry out its activities. The Advisory Committee shall not have any authority to procure any temporary or intermittent services of any personnel under section 3109 of title 5, United States Code, or under any other provision of law.

"(g)(1) Members of the Advisory Committee shall, while serving on business of the Advisory Committee, be entitled to receive compensation at a rate not to exceed the daily rate specified for Grade GS–18 of the General Schedule in section 5332 of title 5, United States Code, including travel time.

"(2) Members of the Advisory Committee, while serving away from their places of residence or regular places of business, shall be entitled to reimbursement for travel expenses, including per diem in lieu of subsistence, in the same manner as the expenses authorized by section 5703 of title 5,

United States Code, for persons in the Federal Government service employed intermittently.

"(h) To carry out the purposes of this section, there is authorized to be appropriated such sums as may be necessary, not to exceed $500,000 for each fiscal year.".

ALLOCATION

SEC. 10. The first sentence of section 222(b) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5632(b)) is amended by striking out "in a manner" and all that follows through "part" and inserting in lieu thereof "in an equitable manner to the States which are determined by the Administrator to be in compliance with the requirements of section 223(a)(12)(A) and section 223(a)(13) for use by such States in a manner consistent with the purposes of section 223(a)(10)(H)".

STATE PLANS

SEC. 11. (a)(1) Section 223(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)) is amended by striking out "consistent with the provisions" and all that follows through "such plan must" and inserting in lieu thereof the following: "applicable to a 3-year period. Such plan shall be amended annually to include new programs, and the State shall submit annual performance reports to the Administrator which shall describe progress in implementing programs contained in the original plan, and

shall describe the status of compliance with State plan requirements. In accordance with regulations which the Administrator shall prescribe, such plan shall".

(2) Section 223(a)(3)(A) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(3)(A)) is amended by striking out "twenty-one" and inserting in lieu thereof "15", and by striking out "thirty-three" and inserting in lieu thereof "33".

(3) Section 223(a)(3)(B) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(3)(B)) is amended—

(A) by inserting "locally elected officials," after "include"; and

(B) by inserting "special education," after "education,".

(4) Section 223(a)(3)(E) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(3)(E)) is amended—

(A) by striking out "one-third" and inserting in lieu thereof "one-fifth";

(B) by striking out "twenty-six" and inserting in lieu thereof "24";

(C) by inserting ", and" after "appointment"; and

(D) by striking out "three of whom" and inserting in lieu thereof "3 of whose members".

(5) Section 223(a)(3)(F) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(3)(F)) is amended—

(A) by striking out "(ii) may advise" and all that follows through "requested;" and inserting in lieu thereof "(ii) shall submit to the Governor and the legislature at least annually recommendations with respect to matters related to its functions, including State compliance with the requirements of paragraph (12)(A) and paragraph (13);"; and

(B) by adding at the end thereof the following: "and (v) shall contact and seek regular input from juveniles currently under the jurisdiction of the juvenile justice system;".

(6) Section 223(a)(3)(F)(iii) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(3)(F)(iii)) is amended by striking out "and" at the end thereof.

(7) Section 223(a)(8) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(8)) is amended to read as follows:

"(8) provide for (A) an analysis of juvenile crime problems and juvenile justice and delinquency preven-

tion needs within the relevant jurisdiction, a description of the services to be provided, and a description of performance goals and priorities, including a specific statement of the manner in which programs are expected to meet the identified juvenile crime problems and juvenile justice and delinquency prevention needs of the jurisdiction; (B) an indication of the manner in which the programs relate to other similar State or local programs which are intended to address the same or similar problems; and (C) a plan for the concentration of State efforts which shall coordinate all State juvenile delinquency programs with respect to overall policy and development of objectives and priorities for all State juvenile delinquency programs and activities, including provision for regular meetings of State officials with responsibility in the area of juvenile justice and delinquency prevention;".

(8) Section 223(a)(10) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(10)) is amended—

(A) by striking out "juvenile detention and correctional facilities" and inserting in lieu thereof " confinement in secure detention facilities and secure correctional facilities";

(B) by striking out "and" the fifth place it appears therein;

(C) by inserting after "standards" the following: ", and to provide programs for juveniles who have committed serious crimes, particularly programs which are designed to improve sentencing procedures, provide resources necessary for informed dispositions, and provide for effective rehabilitation"; and

(D) by adding at the end thereof the following new subparagraph:

"(J) projects designed both to deter involvement in illegal activities and to promote involvement in lawful activities on the part of juvenile gangs and their members;".

(9) Section 223(a)(10)(A) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(10)(A)) is amended by inserting "education, special education," after "home programs,".

(10) Section 223(a)(10)(E) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(10)(E)) is amended by striking out "keep delinquents and to", and by inserting "delinquent youth and" after "encourage".

(11) Section 223(a)(10)(H) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(10)(H)) is amended to read as follows:

"(H) statewide programs through the use of subsidies or other financial incentives to units of local government designed to—

"(i) remove juveniles from jails and lock-ups for adults;

"(ii) replicate juvenile programs designated as exemplary by the National Institute of Justice;

"(iii) establish and adopt, based upon the recommendations of the Advisory Committee, standards for the improvement of juvenile justice within the State; or

"(iv) increase the use of nonsecure community-based facilities and discourage the use of secure incarceration and detention;".

(12) Section 223(a)(10)(I) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(10)(I)) is amended to read as follows:

"(I) programs designed to develop and implement projects relating to juvenile delinquency and learning disabilities, including on-the-job training programs to assist law enforcement and juvenile

justice personnel to more effectively recognize and provide for learning disabled and other handicapped juveniles; and".

(13) Section 223(a)(12)(A) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(12)(A)) is amended by striking out "juvenile detention or correctional facilities" and inserting in lieu thereof "secure detention facilities or secure correctional facilities".

(14) Section 223(a)(15) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in paragraph (15)(A), is amended—

(A) by striking out "paragraph (12)(A) and paragraph (13)" and inserting in lieu thereof "paragraph (12)(A), paragraph (13), and paragraph (14)"; and

(B) by inserting before the semicolon at the end thereof the following: ", except that such reporting requirements shall not apply in the case of a State which is in compliance with the other requirements of this paragraph, which is in compliance with the requirements in paragraph (12)(A) and paragraph (13), and which has enacted legislation which conforms to such requirements and which contains, in the opinion of the Administrator, sufficient enforcement mechanisms to ensure that such legislation will be administered effectively".

(15) Section 223(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)), as amended by the foregoing provisions of this subsection, is further amended—

(A) by redesignating paragraph (14) through paragraph (21) as paragraph (15) through paragraph (22), respectively, and by inserting after paragraph (13) the following new paragraph:

"(14) provide that, beginning after the 5-year period following the date of the enactment of the Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1980, no juvenile shall be detained or confined in any jail or lockup for adults;"; and

(B) by adding at the end thereof the following new sentence: "Such plan shall be modified by the State, as soon as practicable after the date of the enactment of the Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1980, in order to comply with the requirements of paragraph (14).".

(b) Section 223(c) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(c)) is amended—

(1) by striking out ", with the concurrence of the Associate Administrator,";

(2) by inserting after "juveniles" the following: "or through removal of 100 percent of such juveniles from secure correctional facilities"; and

(3) by adding at the end thereof the following new sentence: "Failure to achieve compliance with the requirements of subsection (a)(14) within the 5-year time limitation shall terminate any State's eligibility for funding under this subpart, unless the Administrator determines that (1) the State is in substantial compliance with such requirements through the achievement of not less than 75 percent removal of juveniles from jails and lockups for adults; and (2) the State has made, through appropriate executive or legislative action, an unequivocal commitment to achieving full compliance within a reasonable time, not to exceed 2 additional years.".

(c) Section 223(d) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(d)) is amended—

(1) by striking out "special emphasis prevention and treatment";

(2) by striking out "section 224" and inserting in lieu thereof "subsection (a)(10)(H)";

(3) by striking out "endeavor to";

(4) by striking out "a preferential" and inserting in lieu thereof "an equitable";

(5) by striking out "to programs in nonparticipating States under section 224(a)(2) and";

(6) by striking out "substantial or"; and

(7) by striking out "subsection (a)(12)(A) requirement" and all that follows through "subsection (c)" and inserting in lieu thereof "requirements under subsection (a)(12)(A) and subsection (a)(13)".

SPECIAL EMPHASIS PREVENTION AND TREATMENT PROGRAMS

SEC. 12. (a) Section 224(a)(5) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5634(a)(5)) is amended to read as follows:

"(5) develop statewide programs through the use of subsidies or other financial incentives designed to—

"(A) remove juveniles from jails and lockups for adults;

"(B) replicate juvenile programs designated as exemplary by the National Institute of Justice; or

"(C) establish and adopt, based upon recommendations of the Advisory Committee, standards for the improvement of juvenile justice within the State;".

(b) Section 224(a)(11) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5634(a)(11)) is amended by inserting before the period at the end thereof the following: ", including on-the-job training programs to assist law enforcement personnel and juvenile justice personnel to more effectively recognize and provide for learning disabled and other handicapped juveniles".

(c) Section 224 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5634) is amended by adding at the end thereof the following new subsection:

"(d) Assistance provided pursuant to this section shall be available on an equitable basis to deal with disadvantaged youth, including females, minority youth, and mentally retarded and emotionally or physically handicapped youth.".

PAYMENTS

SEC. 13. (a) Section 228 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5638) is amended by striking out subsection (b) thereof, and by redesignating subsection (c) through subsection (g) as subsection (b) through subsection (f), respectively.

(b) Section 228(f) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in subsection (a), is amended—

(1) by inserting "subpart II of" after "applicant under"; and

(2) by striking out "under section 224" and inserting in lieu thereof "in an equitable manner to States which have complied with the requirements in section 223(a)(12)(A) and section 223(a)(13), under section 224(a)(5)".

ADMINISTRATIVE PROVISIONS

SEC. 14. Section 262 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5672) is amended to read as follows:

"APPLICABILITY OF OTHER ADMINISTRATIVE PROVISIONS

"SEC. 262. (a) The administrative provisions of sections 802(a), 802(c), 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 810, 812, 813, 814(a), 815(c), 817(a), 817(b), 817(c), 818(a), 818(b), and 818(d) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 are incorporated in this Act as administrative provisions applicable to this Act. References in the cited sections authorizing action by the Director of the Office of Justice Assistance, Research and Statistics, the Administrator of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, the Director of the National Institute of Justice, and the Director of the Bureau of Justice Statistics also shall be construed as authorizing the Administrator of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention to perform the same action.

"(b) The Office of Justice Assistance, Research, and Statistics shall directly provide staff support to, and coordinate the activities of, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention in the same manner as it is authorized to provide staff support and coordinate the activities of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, National Institute of Justice, and Bureau of Justice Statistics pursuant to section 801(b) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.".

RUNAWAY AND HOMELESS YOUTH

SEC. 15. (a) The heading for title III of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5701 et seq.) is amended to read as follows:

"TITLE III—RUNAWAY AND HOMELESS YOUTH".

(b) Section 301 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5701 note) is amended by inserting "and Homeless" after "Runaway".

(c) Section 311 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5711) is amended—

(1) by inserting "(a)" after the section designation;

(2) by inserting "equitably among the States based upon their respective populations of youth under 18 years of age" after "shall be made";

(3) by inserting ", and their families," after "homeless youth";

(4) by inserting after "services." the following new sentence: "Grants also may be made for the provision of a national communications system for the purpose of assisting runaway and homeless youth in communicating with their families and with service providers."; and

(5) by adding at the end thereof the following new subsections:

"(b) The Secretary is authorized to provide supplemental grants to runaway centers which are developing, in cooperation with local juvenile court and social service agency personnel, model programs designed to provide assistance to juveniles who have repeatedly left and remained away from their homes or from any facilities in which they have been placed as the result of an adjudication.

"(c) The Secretary is authorized to provide on-the-job training to local runaway and homeless youth center personnel and coordinated networks of local law enforcement, social service, and welfare personnel to assist such personnel in rec-

ognizing and providing for learning disabled and other handicapped juveniles.".

(d)(1) Section 312(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5712(a)) is amended by striking out "house" and inserting in lieu thereof "center", and by inserting "or to other homeless juveniles" before the period at the end thereof.

(2) Section 312(b) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5712(b)) is amended—

(A) by striking out "house" each place it appears therein and inserting in lieu thereof "center"; and

(B) in paragraph (4) thereof, by inserting "social service personnel, and welfare personnel," after "personnel,".

(e) Section 313 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5713) is amended by striking out "$100,000" and inserting in lieu thereof "$150,000", and by striking out "any applicant whose program budget is smaller than $150,000" and inserting in lieu thereof "organizations which have a demonstrated experience in the provision of service to runaway and homeless youth and their families".

(f) Section 315 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5715) is amended by striking out "houses" and inserting in lieu thereof "centers".

TECHNICAL AND CONFORMING AMENDMENTS

SEC. 16. (a) Section 103(5) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5603(5)) is amended by striking out "section 101(b)" and all that follows through "amended" and inserting in lieu thereof "section 201(c)".

(b)(1) Section 201(c) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(c)) is amended—

(A) in the first sentence thereof, by striking out "Associate"; and

(B) by striking out the last sentence thereof.

(2) Section 201(d) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(d)) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein.

(3) Section 201(e) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(e)) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein, and by striking out "Office" the last place it appears therein and inserting in lieu thereof "office".

(4) Section 201(f) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5611(f)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(c)(1) Section 202(c) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5612(c)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(2) Section 202(d) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5612(d)) is amended by striking out "title I" and inserting in lieu thereof "title 5".

(d)(1) Section 204(d)(1) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5614(d)(1)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(2) Section 204(g) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974. (42 U.S.C. 5614(g)) is amended by striking out "Administration" and inserting in lieu thereof "Office".

(3) Section 204(i) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5614(i)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(4) Section 204(k) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5614(k)) is amended by striking out "the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare" and inserting in lieu thereof "Health and Human Services".

(5) Section 204(l)(1) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5614(l)(1)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(e) Section 205 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5615) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein.

(f)(1) Section 206(a)(1) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(a)(1)) is amended—

(A) by striking out ", Education, and Welfare" and inserting in lieu thereof "and Human Services";

(B) by striking out "the Commissioner of the Office of Education,";

(C) by inserting "the Director of the Office of Justice Assistance, Research, and Statistics, the Administrator of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration," after "designees,";

(D) by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein; and

(E) by inserting "the Director of the National Institute of Justice," after "Prevention," the last place it appears therein.

(2) Section 206(b) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(b)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(3) Section 206(e) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5616(e)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(g)(1) Section 223(a)(1) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(1)) is amended—

(A) by striking out "planning agency" and inserting in lieu thereof "criminal justice council"; and

(B) by striking out "section 203 of such title I" and inserting in lieu thereof "section 402(b)(1) of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968".

(2) Section 223(a)(2) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(2)) is amended by striking out "planning agency" and inserting in lieu thereof "criminal justice council".

(3) Section 223(a)(3)(A) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(3)(A)) is amended by striking out "a juvenile" and inserting in lieu thereof "juvenile".

(4) Section 223(a)(3)(F) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(3)(F)) is amended—

(A) in clause (i) thereof, by striking out "planning agency" and inserting in lieu thereof "criminal justice council";

(B) in clause (iii) thereof, by striking out "planning agency" and all that follows through "as amended" and inserting in lieu thereof "criminal justice council"; and

(C) in clause (iv) thereof—

(i) by striking out "planning agency and regional planning unit supervisory" and inserting in lieu thereof "criminal justice council and local criminal justice advisory"; and

(ii) by striking out "section 261(b) and section 502(b)" and inserting in lieu thereof "section 1002".

(5) Section 223(a)(11) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(11)) is amended by striking out "provides" and inserting in lieu thereof "provide".

(6) Section 223(a)(12)(B) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)(12)(B)) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(7) Section 223(a)(15) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in section 11(a)(15)(A), is amended by striking out "Associate".

(8) Section 223(a)(18)(A) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in section 11(a)(15)(A), is amended by striking out "or" the first place it appears therein and inserting in lieu thereof "of".

(9) Section 223(a)(21) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in section 11(a)(15)(A), is amended—

(A) by striking out "planning agency" and inserting in lieu thereof "criminal justice council";

(B) by striking out "then" and inserting in lieu thereof "than"; and

(C) by striking out "Associate".

(10) Section 223(a)(22) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in section 11(a)(15)(A), is amended by striking out "Associate".

(11) Section 223(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(a)), as amended in section 11(a)(15)(B), is further amended (in the sentence preceding the last sentence thereof) by striking out "303(a)" and inserting in lieu thereof "section 403".

(12) Section 223(b) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(b)) is amended by striking out "planning agency" and inserting in lieu thereof "criminal justice council".

(13) Section 223(d) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5633(d)) is amended by striking out "sections 509, 510, and 511" and inserting in lieu thereof "sections 803, 804, and 805".

(h) Section 224(a)(6) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5634(a)(6)) is amended by striking out "Commissioner" and inserting in lieu thereof "Secretary".

(i) Section 228(f) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as so redesignated in section 11(a), is amended by striking out "section 509" and inserting in lieu thereof "section 803".

(j)(1) Section 241(L) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5651(b)) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein.

(2) Section 241(c) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5651(c)) is amended by striking out "National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice" and inserting in lieu thereof "National Institute of Justice".

(k) Section 244(3) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5654(3)) is amended by striking out "sections 249, 250, and 251" and inserting in lieu thereof "sections 248, 249, and 250".

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(l) Section 245 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5655) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(m) Section 246 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5656) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein.

(n) Section 248(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5658(a)) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein.

(o) Section 249 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5660) is amended by striking out "Associate".

(p)(1) Section 250(a) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5661(a)) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein.

(2) Section 250(b) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5661(b)) is amended by striking out "Associate" each place it appears therein.

(3) Section 250(c) of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (42 U.S.C. 5661(c)) is amended by striking out "section 5703(b)" and inserting in lieu thereof "section 5703".

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APPENDIX X

*Title III—Runaway Youth Act Amendments**

This program's title is amended by the Committee Amendment to reflect the 1977 Act's homeless youth focus. Thus, entitled the Runaway and Homeless Youth Act. The Committee amendment makes statutory the authority for the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to continue to fund national telephone networks to link runaway, homeless, neglected and abused youth with their families and service providers. It further expands the client population eligible for service and stimulate the strengthening of governmental and private sector programs for youth and families in need of service. The Secretary will continue through the Administration for Children, Youth and Families to collect any information necessary to report on and assess the need for programs and services funded under this title.

The Committee bill authorized funding for Title III at the same level as the 1977 Act of $25 million per year for each of five fiscal years, 1981 through 1985.

RUNAWAY AND HOMELESS YOUTH**

H.R. 6704 broadens the name and scope of Title III programs to Runaway and Homeless Youth, in recognition of the fact that many youth presently being served by Title III projects do not leave home of their own accord, but may, in many instances, be pushed out or be running from physical or sexual abuse.

The committee bill requires for the first time that Title III grants be made equitably among the States based upon their respective population of youth under 18 years of age. This conforms grant allocation under Title III to the same criteria for distributing assistance utilized in Title II of the act. It is done also in recognition of evidence presented to the committee during oversight that more children running away today are running within their own communities or being pushed out rather than running across country. This being the case, assistance is needed in communities across the country and funds should be allocated in such a way as to reflect that fact.

Two additional program authorities are given the Secretary of Health and Human Services. One is to provide supplemental grants to centers which develop, with the cooperation of juvenile court and social services personnel, model programs addressing the needs of chronic runaways—those who run from home or placements repeatedly. The second is to provide on-the-job training to local runaway and homeless youth center personnel and coordinated networks of local law enforcement, social service, and welfare personnel to assist them in recognizing and providing for learning disabled and other handicapped juveniles.

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*Source: Report, Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act Amendments of 1980 S. 2441, May 14, 1980, p. 8.

**Report, Juvenile Justice Amendments of 1980, H.R. 6704, May 13, 1980, p. 28.

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